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ABSTRACT

A QUANTITATIVE STUDY OF EMPLOYEES' PERCEPTIONS OF THE
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE
OF A TORONTO-BASED TECHNOLOGY COMPANY,
AND THEIR JOB SATISFACTION
AND ENGAGEMENT

by

Donn Whitehall

Chair: Elvin Gabriel

ABSTRACT OF GRADUATE STUDENT RESEARCH

Dissertation

Andrews University

School of Education

**TITLE: A QUANTITATIVE STUDY OF EMPLOYEES' PERCEPTIONS OF THE
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF A
TORONTO-BASED TECHNOLOGY COMPANY, AND THEIR JOB
SATISFACTION AND ENGAGEMENT**

Name of researcher: Donn Whitehall

Name and degree of faculty chair: Elvin Gabriel, Ed.D.

Date completed: November 2018

Problem

There are gaps in the literature related to organizational culture, job satisfaction, and employee engagement. Researchers have noted that these variables, and the relationships amongst them, have not been studied enough and there exists a need for further research. The purpose of this study was to examine employees' perceptions of the relationship between the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction and engagement.

Method

This study utilized a quantitative, non-experimental, correlational method, while employing a cross-sectional approach with secondary data. This study used data collected by a Toronto-based technology company in June of 2016. The goal of this survey was to measure employee engagement and overall employee happiness, for the purpose of determining what areas of the organization's culture, if any, needed to be improved. The participants for this study were all full-time employees of the organization. Seventy-three percent of the employee workforce - 76 out of a total of 104 employees - completed the survey. The hypotheses were tested using bivariate correlation analysis to examine the relationship between the variables.

Results

The results showed that (1) employees' perceived organizational culture was positively correlated with their job satisfaction; (2) employees' perceived organizational culture was positively correlated with their engagement; (3) there is no statistically significant correlation between employees' length of time with the organization, and their job satisfaction; and (4) employees' gender was not correlated with their job satisfaction.

Two of the hypotheses were supported, while two were not.

Research Hypothesis H_1 : There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' perception of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction. This hypothesis was supported

Research Hypothesis H_2 : There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' perceptions of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job engagement. This hypothesis was supported.

Research Hypothesis H_3 : There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' length of time at a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction. This hypothesis was rejected

Research Hypothesis H_4 : There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' gender and their job satisfaction. This hypothesis was rejected.

Conclusions

The results of this study confirmed that there is a strong positive, significant, relationship between organizational culture and the job satisfaction and engagement of employees. Organizations should therefore strategically plan to develop an organizational culture that will lead to high levels of job satisfaction and engagement among their employees, as this may result in positive business outcomes including employee retention and higher levels of commitment to the organization, and to the achievement of its goals.

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School of Education

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A Dissertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

by

Donn Whitehall

November 2018

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APPROVAL BY THE COMMITTEE:

Chair: Elvin Gabriel

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Member: Tevni Grajales

Member: Jay Brand

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Date approved

“For I know the plans I have for you,” declares the LORD, “plans to prosper you and not to harm you, plans to give you hope and a future.”

- Jeremiah 29:11, NIV

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ERG	Existence, Relatedness, and Growth
IT	Information Technology
NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

My pursuit of a Ph.D degree in Higher Education Administration has been a very long journey, and the dissertation process has been extremely arduous. I began my Ph.D. journey at the age of 23, with the goal of graduating before my 30th birthday. Various life events – including serious health issues, loss of life, unemployment, marriage and relocation – derailed this plan as family responsibilities took precedence over completing the dissertation. I am forever grateful to the numerous people – including classmates, church family, and friends – who kept checking up on me, praying for me, and encouraging me to finish what I started.

I am grateful to the persons whom God led to offer me financial assistance when I needed it. I am even more grateful that despite my objections, they insisted that I accept their generosity! I am especially appreciative to Grace and Herman Bromfield for the enormous sacrifice they made on my behalf.

I am indebted to both Charmaine and my wife, Alicia, for taking the time to edit this final version of my dissertation, which would not have existed without the expert direction of my dissertation committee. Dr. Brand, thank you for joining my committee late in the process. Your experience in the topic area was invaluable. Dr. Grajales, thank you for your patience in helping me to reformulate my research methodology to view this study from a completely different perspective. Dr. Gabriel, I am so grateful to you for agreeing to be my Chair, and for not giving up on me. As tedious as this process has

been for me, I am sure it has also been challenging for you. Your continued support, guidance, and encouragement will never be forgotten. Thank you so much for sticking with me, and for not retiring before I completed this journey. I wish Dr. Warren was still here, but his sage advice continued to help me through this process, even after his passing.

It is only because of my family that I kept going when I wanted to give up on completing this dissertation. I have invested a large amount of time and money into the pursuit of this degree, but so have my parents, Peter and Pamela. While I could accept giving up on my investment, I couldn't give up on theirs. To my parents and my sister, Dionne, thank you for your continued support, encouragement, and nagging over the years. Our family's amazing legacy of academic excellence, and your continued belief in my ability to complete this dissertation, helped me to keep believing in myself. Thank you for setting the bar high and for pushing me to always be the best I can be.

To my wife, Alicia, whom I met about halfway through this journey, I really don't know how to express how thankful I am for all the sacrifices you've made to help me reach this point. You've been with me through the toughest part of this journey, and we both know I wouldn't have been able to make it without you. I love you. To my son, DJ, who entered this world just over a year ago, I know you don't understand why Daddy wasn't always able to spend time with you, but I hope my completion of this degree will serve as an example to you to never give up, to always pursue the dreams God puts on your heart, and to never let anyone tell you you're not good enough.

Finally, I give glory and honor to God for bringing me to, and through, this journey. I know He has a plan for me, and I am looking forward to seeing it unfold as this new chapter of my life begins.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

According to Wright (2006), more than 10,000 studies had been conducted on job satisfaction before 1997. Wright suggested that the reason for so many studies is the belief that a satisfied worker is more productive. Some of these studies date back to the start of the 20th century.

In the early 1900's, Taylor (1911) became one of the first researchers to study the relationship between production and employee satisfaction, with the goal of improving the organization, maximizing its profits, and providing prosperity for its employees (Adams, 2000). Employee prosperity was to be accomplished through higher wages and helping employees reach their full potential. This would ultimately result in employees having a greater sense of self-respect (Adams, 2000).

In the 1920's and 1930's, the Hawthorne Studies were conducted to examine how environmental variables such as lighting, humidity, and temperature would affect productivity (Adams, 2000). Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) analyzed the data from the study and found that productivity increased regardless of whether the quality of physical conditions increased or decreased. The focus of the Hawthorne Studies then shifted to look at employee attitudes, since the expected results were not illustrated from investigating environmental variables alone (Wright, 2006). This research would

eventually help to increase the understanding of worker satisfaction and productivity (Demas, 2011).

According to Demas (2011), between the 1920's and 1960's a large amount of research was conducted to measure work attitudes, as opposed to environmental factors. As labor unions gained popularity in the 1950's and 1960's, workers' satisfaction became more important to management. Demas (2011) also pointed out that the Hawthorne study, as well as studies conducted by Kornhauser (1933) and Houser (1927), helped to increase a general understanding of the link between worker satisfaction and productivity.

Wright (2006) stated that he believes job satisfaction and job performance are related, despite the fact that after thousands of studies have been conducted, a definitive link has not yet been established. Therefore, there are still opportunities for new research to be conducted on the topic of job satisfaction, to fully explore the potential relationships between job satisfaction and variables such as job performance, employee attitudes, and organizational culture.

A number of researchers have noted that organizational culture affects job satisfaction (Odom, Boxx, & Dunn, 1990; Sheridan, 1992; Stebbins, 2008; Wallach, 1983), while others have noted a link between organizational culture and employee retention (Alexander, 2012; Meyer & Topolnytsky, 2000; Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974; Ritchie, 2000). A relationship has also been noted between job satisfaction and employee engagement (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011; Fairbanks, 2007; Smith, 2016), and employee engagement and job performance (Christian et al., 2011; Fairbanks, 2007; Smith, 2016). Likewise, relationships have been noted between work-life balance and job satisfaction (Gainey & Clenney, 2006), employee retention

(Ackerman & Bezuidenhout, 2007), and employee engagement (Gryzwacz & Carlson, 2007). While direct or definitive links have not always been found, an examination of the literature shows that organizational culture, job satisfaction, employee engagement, employee retention, work-life balance and overall job performance are all related. It is therefore important for organizations to carefully examine each of these variables, and the effect they can have on the organization.

Rationale for the Study

Personal

After being employed within various jobs in different countries, there were certain norms that I had accepted as an employee in the workplace. I understood that there was a hierarchy, and whatever my manager said, is what had to be done, as the manager was the one who held the power to determine whether I remained employed or not. I also understood that I had to be at work for a set number of hours, whether I had set tasks to do or not, and whether I was being productive or not. Even in jobs where flex-hours were allowed, an 8 hour work day was still the expected norm. None of these were characteristics of the work environment I hoped to one day nurture as an administrator. I strongly believed that there was a better way to motivate employees for the betterment of the organization.

My exposure to alternate workplace norms began after I received an interview for a position at an Information Technology (IT) company based in Toronto, Canada. I was advised by the Human Resources manager that the company, “Northern Protection” (a pseudonym assigned for this study), had a very unique culture. A few days later I accepted the position, after being told by the Hiring Manager that Northern Protection is

very careful about who they let into their “family” – because they really are a family. I was not prepared for the culture that I would encounter at Northern Protection.

Schein (2010) describes three levels of culture. The first level, *Artifacts*, include the visible, physical, elements that can be noticed by outsiders, such as dress code, work processes, technology, documents, and stories. The second level, *Espoused Values*, are the beliefs and values promoted by the organization’s leadership, such as goals, strategies, philosophies, and management styles. The third and deepest level, *Basic Underlying Assumptions*, are the unconscious values that are difficult to discern. These values are so engrained in the culture that they are considered self-evident, and are often taken for granted.

After just a few days at Northern Protection, I was enamored by the culture as it was something I had never experienced before. I was instantly in love with it as it made me look forward to going to work. The *Artifacts* level was the first that I noticed, primarily in the form of a very relaxed dressed code, and open seating. As I learned more about the organization, the *Espoused Values* level of the culture also stood out to me as a unique feature. Leadership considered employee happiness as a success factor, and providing a work environment where employees enjoyed coming to work was an active goal of the organization. The *Basic Underlying Assumptions* level of culture was harder to grasp and took some time to assimilate. For example, it was entirely acceptable to take a break from working to play video games, or to work in the lunch room in order to watch whatever major sporting event was taking place at that time. When I was invited to do the same, even by my Manager, I was hesitant, because I did not yet understand the *Assumptions* level at Northern Protection.

I was extremely impressed with the culture I was experiencing and wanted to learn more about it. I wanted to know how the leaders of Northern Protection developed such a unique culture, how they maintained it, and why I had never experienced such a culture anywhere else I had worked. This culture reflected what I hoped to develop as an administrator, and I wanted to know how I could develop Northern Protection's culture at another organization.

Theoretical

There are gaps in the literature related to organizational culture, job satisfaction, and employee engagement. Researchers have noted that these variables, and their relationships, have not been studied enough, and there exists a need for further research (Harper, 2015; Schein, 2010).

Professional

This study will contribute to my growth as a researcher as it is the most comprehensive study in which I have been involved. Researching this topic provided me the opportunity to immerse myself in a long-term research study, where I served as the sole contributor. It was necessary for me to develop and utilize a variety of transferable research skills in order to be successful, including critical thinking, analysis of data, and report writing.

Additionally, the topic being covered is one that will be beneficial as I advance in my career. The knowledge gathered in this study will be practical to my current and future administrative roles, as I will have insight into areas critical to the success of the organization.

A History of Northern Protection's Development

Established in 2004, Northern Protection has been growing rapidly in recent years. In January 2014, there were just over 30 employees. At the August 2014 company-wide meeting – held bi-annually and attended by all employees – it was stated that the company now employed a total of 57 employees. By March 2015, Northern Protection was already on their way to surpassing the 80 employee mark, and at the August 2016 company-wide meeting, the organization celebrated reaching the 100th employee milestone – though at the time, the actual total number of employees had already well surpassed 100. Although most employees worked out of the Toronto office, the company had employees based in various cities across three different countries.

At Northern Protection, it is not uncommon to hear music filling the office, to hear the laughter of employees as they make use of the foosball table or video game console in the lunch room, or to even see a group of employees enjoying a shot of alcohol to celebrate a new product launch or simply the end of the work week. The environment sometimes resembles a fraternity house more than the office of a company that provides technology services to Fortune 500 companies in various industries, including finance, travel, and family entertainment. Yet Northern Protection continues to flourish and grow as more well-known organizations seek out its services.

During an informal conversation with me shortly after I joined the organization, the Founder and Chief Executive Officer of Northern Protection stated that he understands that Northern Protection may not pay the highest salaries in the industry, but what sets the company apart is their environment. He went on to clarify that he wants to foster an environment where people are excited about going to work. It would seem that

he has been successful in creating such an environment, but he continues to seek ways to cultivate an environment that he hopes will make it difficult for employees to choose to leave. He, and the rest of the executive team, continue to seek ways to preserve Northern Protection's culture, as the organization continues to grow and expand rapidly.

After experiencing the environment nurtured by Northern Protection, I began to wonder why every other organization did not implement the same type of culture. Developing this type of culture, however, is not an easy task. This is especially difficult because the culture at Northern Protection is comprised of so many different elements.

In addition to the elements that have already been mentioned, the culture also promotes an environment where employees are encouraged to share ideas, concerns, and grievances with senior executives. The organization initially had a completely flat structure, but found a need for some hierarchy as it grew – mainly to facilitate decision making and ownership of tasks. Despite this change, the organization's leaders continue to promote transparency, consistently sharing financial and strategic information with employees on a regular basis.

The organization also strongly encourages its employees to publicly recognize each other via an online recognition board. The recognition recorded here is used in determining the winners of prizes once a year, during the company-wide meeting. Likewise, managers are encouraged to give regular feedback to each employee, through weekly one-on-one meetings. This time is also used to build and maintain close relationships, by discussing not only professional matters, but also personal matters.

Career development is also an integral part of the culture, with every employee given \$3,000 CAD per year to use towards professional growth. Employees are

encouraged to apply for internal job postings and at times are even allowed to create their own new positions, based on the needs of the organization. To facilitate a sense of family amongst the employees, personal milestones such as birthdays, marriages, and the birth of children are publicly recognized.

The organization also highly values work-life balance. All employees, regardless of their length of employment, have unlimited vacation days. Employees are able to work flexible hours and most employees work from home at least two days per week. Although employees' time off is tracked, their daily working hours are not. Employees understand that the flexibility in work hours and time off is provided with the expectation that they will put in the hours necessary to get the job done – even if that means working more than 40 hours per week, on occasion. Additionally, many recreational events, sponsored by the organization, are hosted throughout the year, and at various times employees' family members are also invited to attend these events.

Maintaining the culture at Northern Protection involves strategically investing time and resources to ensure that what was developed during the early years of the organization, such as a sense of family and commitment to employee work-life balance, remains as employee headcount continues to grow.

Statement of the Problem

The retention of skilled employees is a problem faced by many organizations (Diala, 2010). As the process of recruitment, selection, training, and development require significant time and money, organizations need to value employees and ensure that they are motivated to perform the job (Otoum, 2010). The attrition of IT workers costs

organizations money, time, human capital and productivity (Diala, 2010; Reichheld, 1996).

In order to retain employees, organizations need to cultivate an environment and culture that promotes a sense of job satisfaction for employees while keeping them engaged. The IT industry is vast, encompassing various types of organizations, and many opportunities, both locally and globally, exist for IT professionals to find work. The fact is, we live in an age where the Internet's emergence as a tool for low-cost global connectivity (Friedman, 2007) has made the world a much smaller space, and global work opportunities are available to workers from various professional backgrounds. It is therefore imperative for organizations, regardless of industry, to seek ways of creating a working environment in which employees attain a sense of happiness. The happier, more engaged and more satisfied employees are with their jobs, the longer they will stay in those jobs. Engaged employees report higher levels of job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions (Christian et al., 2011). Studies have noted that an employee's intention to leave the workplace is linked to their level of job satisfaction (Kemery, Mossholder, & Bedeian, 1987), and more specifically, that employees who leave the organization are characterized by lower levels of satisfaction (Porter et al., 1974). Studies have also found that employees who feel that their current organizational culture ignores their needs are motivated to leave the organization and seek employment elsewhere (Atkins & Turner, 2006). Conversely, a satisfactory work-place culture that provides an enjoyable work environment leads to lower turnover (Sadri & Lees, 2001).

While organizational culture, job satisfaction, and employee engagement are not new concepts, there remains a need for additional research on the relationships among

these variables, as they have not been studied carefully enough (Harper, 2015; Schein, 2010).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine employees' perceptions of the relationship between the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction and engagement.

Research Questions

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' perceptions of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction?
2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' perceptions of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job engagement?
3. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' length of time at a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction?
4. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' gender and their job satisfaction?

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework is a set of concepts, assumptions, expectations, beliefs, and theories that both support and inform a research study (Maxwell, 2013). It is a tentative theory, used to inform the design of the study, including designing research questions, creating goals, and selecting appropriate methods (Maxwell, 2013). This study

utilized a conceptual framework that consisted of two components. The first component of the conceptual framework was Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction, or Motivation-Hygiene Theory, while the second component was Hofstede's six dimensions of culture. This conceptual framework was selected because it provided the theoretical foundation needed to design this study, based on the purpose of the study.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction, or Motivation-Hygiene Theory, was one component of the conceptual framework for this study. Brown (2005) found that Herzberg's theory appeared to be more acceptable and more widely used than other theories. According to Brown (2005), Anuna (1997) suggested that Herzberg's theory had become the preferred theory due to the fact that it had developed into a management tool, and had birthed many studies related to job satisfaction.

Developed in 1959, this theory was the result of Herzberg's quest to discover the work environment factors that determine employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction. After a study where 200 engineers and accountants were interviewed about work incidents that led to increased or decreased job satisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959), Herzberg found that the factors that determined satisfaction were separate and distinct from those that determined dissatisfaction. Herzberg (1968) noted that these two feelings are not opposites, because separate factors need to be considered depending on which feeling is being examined. The opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction, but is in fact no job satisfaction. Likewise, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, but rather no job dissatisfaction. The Motivation-Hygiene theory was developed to explain the results of these studies (Brown, 2005). Herzberg theorized that intrinsic factors were related to job satisfaction, while extrinsic factors were thought to be

those associated with dissatisfaction. He referred to these as motivation and hygiene factors, respectively, due to their occupying independent conceptual continua.

Herzberg found that motivation factors, or satisfiers, were achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement. Conversely, Herzberg found that the major hygiene factors, or dissatisfiers, included company policy and administration, supervision, relationships with supervisors and peers, work conditions, salary, status, and security. While hygiene factors do not motivate employees, the lack of or inadequacy of these factors leads to dissatisfaction. Herzberg believed that the motivators were the primary cause of satisfaction, while hygiene factors were the primary cause of unhappiness on the job (Herzberg, 1968).

Although the correction of poor working conditions may prevent employees from resigning, there is no guarantee that good working conditions will motivate these employees to be more productive. Likewise, a significant increase in pay did not seem to produce long term productivity results, as employees typically developed a sense that they were finally being paid what they deserved. Herzberg (1968) did not see money as a motivator as it did not encourage employees to become better workers. A lack of money, however, did serve as a dissatisfier, strong enough to cause employees to resign (Brown, 2005; Schroder, 2003). In support of these observations, Merit (1995) pointed out that “people devote many hours of concerted effort” (p. 74) to things that they find interesting. While hobbies vary widely and may include activities such as basket weaving, constructing model ships, or photography (Merit, 1995), people will dedicate time to the things they enjoy doing, even when there is no financial motivation for their time commitment.

In essence, in order to keep employees happy, a balance must be struck between the elements that cause satisfaction, and the aspects of the work place that cause dissatisfaction. While this balance is not always easy to implement, it is something that organizations should pay careful attention to and strive to accomplish.

Herzberg (1968) noted that “the very nature of motivators, as opposed to hygiene factors, is that they have a much longer-term effect on employee’s attitudes” (p. 96). He also expressed the importance of providing increasingly interesting, challenging work and responsibility to employees that demonstrate the ability to handle more.

Interestingly, Herzberg concluded that if an organization cannot fully utilize an employee, it should get rid of the employee, and should either automate the job or hire someone with lesser ability. If the organization is unable to get rid of the employee, Herzberg suggested that the organization will be faced with a motivation problem.

Past research has shown that a relationship exists between job satisfaction and organizational culture (Ahamed & Mahmood, 2015; Berry, 2016). Hebb (1949) and Morse (1953) both suggested that changes in the organizational culture will affect not only the job satisfaction of the organization’s employees, but will also cause changes in the behavior and attitude of the employees. Wallach (1983) and Zammuto and Krakower (1991) also found that job satisfaction, and job performance, are related to organizational culture. In noting the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational culture, Kline and Boyd (1994) pointed out that employees at different levels are influenced by different aspects of the work environment. Sempene, Rieger, and Roodt (2002) also noted a close relationship between job satisfaction and organizational culture, and go on to state that job satisfaction is the result of organizational culture. Stebbins (2008) also

found a positive relationship between supportive cultures and job satisfaction. While research has shown that organizational culture affects job satisfaction, people will evaluate their job satisfaction level according to the aspects of the work environment which they perceive as being important and meaningful to them (Ahamed & Mahmood, 2015).

The second component of the conceptual framework for this study was Hofstede's six dimensions of culture. Hofstede, a psychologist, developed this framework based on data gathered from roughly 116,000 surveys completed by IBM employees working across 40 different countries in the late 1960s and early 1970s (Kirkman et al., 2010). Hofstede initially developed four cultural dimensions, but would eventually expand the framework to include a total of six dimensions.

Power distance, the first dimension, is the amount of influence one individual has over another (Hofstede et al., 2010). It is the extent to which a person in authority can exercise power over a subordinate, without disagreement or contradiction from that subordinate. This dimension refers to the degree, and acceptance, of unequal distribution of power. In an organization, this dimension would relate to whether or not an employee is allowed or expected to question the decisions of a manager.

Individualism versus collectivism, the second dimension, refers to the level of community found in a group. Groups where the interest of the group take precedence over the interest of the individual, are referred to as collectivism; while individualism refers to groups where the interest of the individual comes first (Hofstede et al., 2010). Most people live in collectivist types of societies (Hofstede et al., 2010). In individualist groups, people take care of themselves and their immediate families. Collectivist groups

are typically tight knit groups, where the group looks out for each member.

Organizations that promote a strong sense of community would be considered collectivist, whilst those that promote independence, where employees only look out for themselves as they try to get ahead, would be considered individualist.

Masculinity versus femininity, the third dimension, refers to the effect of male and female values. Masculinity refers to values that are ‘masculine,’ such as assertiveness and the acquisition of money; while femininity is defined as the opposite of masculinity, and refers to values such as a friendlier atmosphere, position security, physical conditions and cooperation (Kirkman et al., 2010). This dimension refers to the extent to which the masculine values are more prevalent than feminine values. A super competitive organizational culture would be defined as masculine.

Uncertainty avoidance, the fourth dimension, is the extent to which a group feels threatened by uncertainty or ambiguity, and attempts to avoid such situations by establishing more rules and greater stability (Hofstede, 1980). In groups with high uncertainty avoidance, members seek guidelines, structures, and procedures to reduce their anxiety (Gale, 2015). Some organizations try to account for every possible situation by implementing various rules and procedures – just in case the relevant situation ever arises. Organizations of this type have a high level of uncertainty avoidance.

Long term versus short term orientation, the fifth dimension, refers to how the group plans, anticipates and obtains objectives. In long term orientated organizations, the group is more oriented toward future rewards than immediate gratification (Gale, 2015). In short term orientations, the organization is focused on stability, tradition, and immediate gratification (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Indulgence versus Restraint, the final dimension, refers to the amount of gratification that is allowed. Indulgence is related to enjoying life. It is the tendency to allow for gratification of basic and natural human desires (Gale, 2015). Restraint, on the other hand, is the tendency to restrain from the gratification of desires (Gale, 2015). From an organizational perspective, this could relate to the ease with which money is spent, especially on things or activities deemed non-essential.

The conceptual framework of this study was not used to determine what type, or types, of culture are best. According to Handy (1985), there are no good or bad cultures. All cultures have a purpose and are acceptable, depending on the environment (Handy, 1985). Schein (2010) supports this theory, and suggested that whether a culture is “good,” “bad,” or “functionally effective” depends on the environment in which it exists.

Schein (2010) pointed out that the culture of a group is akin to the personality or character of an individual. We can see the behavior that results from the underlying personality and character, which guides an individual’s actions, but we cannot necessarily observe personality or character. The same holds true for culture; we cannot observe it, as culture as a concept is abstract (Schein, 2010), but we can observe the shared norms that guide and constrain the group. As stated previously, in order to keep employees happy, a balance must be struck between motivation factors and hygiene factors. Each of these factors relates to organizational culture in that they are aspects of the organization that group members share in common; but they cannot be thought of as the actual culture (Schein, 2010). They are simply components of the culture.

This study's conceptual framework was used to assist in identifying the shared norms, or components, of the culture found at Northern Protection and how the components of this culture affect the overall happiness of the employees.

Significance of the Study

Recruiting, hiring, and training employees take up a significant amount of time, financial resources, and human capital. It is therefore important to retain good employees in order to reduce the cost to an organization that results from employee attrition. Retaining good employees is extremely hard to do if the employees are not satisfied with their jobs. Knowing what motivates employees and what makes them happy is vital in order to retain said employees.

The field of organizational culture provides an opportunity for the development of new ideas and concepts because it has not yet been studied enough and is still an evolving field (Schein, 2010). Different types of cultures should be visited, experienced, and observed, as culture is constantly being reshaped by our interactions with others as we create new conditions for culture formation (Schein, 2010). In other words, organizational culture is dynamic and should be continuously examined in various settings. The significance of this study is to add to the current knowledge base by providing insight into the culture present in a specific organizational setting that has never before been studied.

This study contributes not only to the current literature on organizational culture but also to the topics of job satisfaction and employee engagement, by examining the job satisfaction and engagement of employees of a rapidly growing technology company and the culture that management has cultivated. The results of this study will help other

managers to implement strategies that will increase the job satisfaction and engagement of their employees, thereby increasing retention and the overall success of their organizations.

Definition of Terms

Employee engagement: “Individual’s involvement and satisfaction with as well as enthusiasm for work” (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002, p. 269).

Employee retention: “Keeping those members of staff that one wants to keep and not losing them from the organisation for whatever reason, especially to the competitors” (Browell, 2003, p. 5).

Job satisfaction: “A pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values” (Locke, 1969, p. 316).

Organizational commitment: “The strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization.” This commitment is usually characterized by “(a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; (c) a definite desire to maintain organizational membership” (Porter et al., 1974, p. 604).

Organizational culture: “A complex set of values, beliefs, assumptions, and symbols that define the way in which a firm conducts its business” (Barney, 1986, p. 657).

Work-life balance: “The extent to which an individual is equally engaged in—and equally satisfied with—his or her work role and family role” (Greenhaus, Collins & Shaw, 2003, p. 513).

Limitations of the Study

Limitations can be expected because the demographic characteristics of the participants – such as age, gender, culture, race, education, position, and history – may affect their responses and viewpoints (LeHew, 2006). This study only examined the relationship between culture and job satisfaction at Northern Protection at one point in time with employees who were employed at that point in time. Additionally, the study was limited to those employees that voluntarily chose to participate by completing the survey. The possibility exists that some employees may have chosen not to participate due to low levels of job satisfaction, which would not be captured in the study because they did not participate. Repeating the study in subsequent years and comparing the findings would help to counteract these limitations.

This study did not take into account the previous work experience of the participants. Employees with greater work experience may compare the culture found at Northern Protection with cultures they have experienced at other organizations and this may affect their responses. Less experienced employees may not have other work-place cultures to compare their experience with and this may affect how they perceive the culture at Northern Protection.

Delimitations

This study was limited to employees of Northern Protection, a Toronto-based technology company, during June of 2016, when the survey instrument was administered. This study did not seek to compare the culture found at Northern Protection with other organizations, but rather was concerned with examining the effects of the culture of Northern Protection on its employees' job satisfaction and engagement.

Organization of the Study

This study is divided into five chapters. Chapter 1 provided an introduction to the study, including background and rationale for the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, conceptual framework, significance of the study, definition of terms, limitations, and delimitations. In Chapter 2, I discuss current literature related to organizational culture, job satisfaction, work-life balance, and employee retention. Chapter 3 outlines the methodology used in this study and describes the study and population, instrumentation, data collection, data analysis, and overall design of the study. In Chapter 4, I present and discuss the results of the study. Chapter 5 includes a summary of the findings, conclusion, and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine employees' perceptions of the relationship between the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction and engagement.

This literature review begins by looking at the history and development of organizational culture, and types of organizational culture, before describing the emergence of job satisfaction and its relationship to organizational culture. The review then gives a brief historical overview of employee engagement, followed by a description of the relationship between employee engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational culture. The review then examines the outcomes of this relationship – namely, employee retention and work-life balance – before ending with a summary and analysis of the topics covered.

For the last few decades there has been a focus on organizational culture research due to the effect it has on the performance and continued success of an organization (Ekwutosi & Moses, 2013). Organizational culture plays a large part in the happiness and commitment of employees and the success of the organization itself. This review focuses on literature pertaining to the topics of organizational culture, job satisfaction, work-life balance, and employee retention. A variety of documents, including journals, dissertations, research papers, and books, were reviewed for this literature review.

The History and Development of Organizational Culture

Organizational “climate” has a much longer research history than organizational “culture” does, as it lent itself to easier direct observation and measurement (Schein, 1990). In the 1950’s and 1960’s, the field of organizational psychology grew and differentiated itself from industrial psychology as the number of business and management schools also grew (Schein, 1990). As researchers began to focus on work groups and organizations, a need arose for a means of describing the patterns of norms and attitudes that seemed prevalent in the entire group being studied (Schein, 1990). Concepts from sociology and anthropology began to influence the field of organizational psychology (Schein, 1990).

According to Platonova (2005), the term “Organizational Culture” was first used in academic literature in 1979 when it appeared in *Administrative Science Quarterly* in an article by Pettigrew (1979). Denison, Nieminen, and Kotrba (2012) however, noted that Jacques (1952) refers to the culture at a factory in his book, *The Changing Culture of a Factory*, more than 20 years prior to Pettigrew’s (1979) article. In the early 1980’s, books published by a number of authors, including Ouchi, Deal and Kennedy, and Peters and Waterman brought attention to organizational culture, and helped to popularize it as an important business concept (Trice & Beyer, 1993). The concept of organizational culture gained popularity with the emphasis on trying to understand why companies in the United States did not perform as well as companies in other countries – mainly Japan (Schein, 1990). Ouchi’s (1981) *Theory Z: How American Business Can Meet the Japanese Challenge* and Pascale and Athos’ (1982) *The Art of Japanese Management: Applications for American Executives* directly addressed this issue, and contributed to the

growth of organizational culture, as did Deal and Kennedy's (1982) *Corporate Cultures: The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life* and Peters and Waterman's (1982) *In Search of Excellence: Lessons from America's Best Run Companies*. Each of these four books were best-sellers, with Peter and Waterman's (1982) out-selling all other non-fiction books in the year (Baker, 2002).

Organizational culture refers to the shared perceptions of organizational work practices within organizational units that may differ from other organizational units (Van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004). Barney (1986) simplified the definition of organizational culture as "a complex set of values, beliefs, assumptions, and symbols that define the way in which a firm conducts its business" (p. 657).

Thomas (2013) stated that Barney's definition is useful because it encompasses all of the attributes present in almost all of the other definitions of organizational culture, including values, beliefs, assumptions, and symbols. Thomas (2013) continued that Barney's definition recognizes that culture is ultimately the way in which organizations conduct themselves and which is manifested in the behavior of an organization's members. The organization's values and beliefs dictate how members of the organization should act, both in the present and in the future.

Schein (2010) referred to culture as "phenomena that are below the surface, that are powerful in their impact but invisible and to a considerable degree unconscious" (p. 14). He goes on to state that "we can see the behavior that results, but we often cannot see the forces underneath that cause certain kinds of behavior" (p. 14). He concluded that culture guides, and constrains, the behavior of members of the group, due to the shared norms in the group.

Drawing upon both academic knowledge and personal experience to develop an approach that is both observational and clinical, Schein (2010) defined the three levels of organizational culture as *Artifacts*, *Espoused Beliefs and Values*, and *Basic Underlying Assumptions*. Denison (1997), however, described the levels of culture as the values and beliefs that underlie actions; the patterns of behavior that reflect and reinforce those values; and the set of conditions, created by these patterns of behavior, within which organizational members must function. Schein viewed culture as an abstract phenomenon, while Denison viewed it as a concrete construct that could be measured.

According to Ritchie (2000), when employees internalize an organization's culture, positive outcomes such as job satisfaction, job commitment, and good job performance are the outcome. Regardless of one's definition, interpretation, or classification, the one constant when it comes to culture is that "proper management of an organization's culture can lead to employees that are committed, engaged, and satisfied with their job" (Alexander, 2012, p. 13).

Just as there are numerous definitions of organizational culture, there are a number of theoretical models of organizational culture. The next section of this review looks at some of the more popular theoretical models.

Popular Theoretical Models of Organizational Culture

Schein's (2010) three levels of organizational culture – defined as *Artifacts*, *Espoused Beliefs and Values*, and *Basic Underlying Assumptions* – is just one of a number of popular theoretical models related to organizational culture. Hofstede, a psychologist, developed a framework based on data gathered from roughly 116,000 surveys completed by IBM employees working across 40 different countries in the late

1960s and early 1970s (Kirkman et al., 2010). Hofstede initially developed four cultural dimensions, but would eventually expand the framework to include a total of six dimensions. Hofstede's (Hofstede et al., 2010) six dimensions of culture include: Power distance - the amount of influence one individual has over another; Individualism versus collectivism - the level of community found in a group; Masculinity versus femininity - the effect of male and female values; Uncertainty avoidance - the extent to which a group feels threatened by uncertainty or ambiguity and attempts to avoid such situations; Long term versus short term orientation - how the group plans, anticipates and obtains objectives; and Indulgence versus Restraint - the amount of gratification that is allowed.

Handy (1985), however, described four types of organizational culture: *power*, *role*, *task*, and *person*. Each unique type can be effective, and can function alongside other types. There are no good or bad cultures – all cultures are acceptable, in the right environment, as each culture has a purpose. Few organizations consist of only one type of culture, but most consist of a mixture of different types. According to Handy, the unique mixture is what makes each organization different, but having the right mixture at the right time is what makes an organizational culture successful.

A *power culture* is governed by one source of power, such as a President or Chief Executive Officer. This culture can be viewed as a spider's web. The center, where the leader resides, is where the power radiates from. The closer to the center an individual is, the more power that individual possesses. In this type of culture minimum bureaucracy exists, and trust and mutual understanding of roles and responsibilities are very important. Employees in this type of culture, usually found in entrepreneurial

organizations, function under very few rules and policies. In this culture type, the organization is led, rather than managed (White, Martin, Stimson, & Hodge, 1991).

The strength of the *role culture*, or bureaucracy, is “its pillars, its functions or specialties” (Handy, 1985, p. 178). Each business unit is a pillar, which supports the overall purpose and goals of the organization. As each business unit supports its own weight by meeting their departmental goals independently, the organization as a whole thrives. This type of culture depends on clearly defined policies and procedures. Employees are expected to meet the responsibilities outlined in their job descriptions. In this culture type, the organization is managed, rather than led (White et al., 1991).

Task culture focuses on a particular task or function. In this type of culture, employees are assembled based on their particular skill-set or the resources they possess, for the purpose of performing a particular job. Examples of this type of culture include special action committees. These types of cultures tend to be friendly, and there is little hierarchy, with team leaders rather than managers. Groups of this type can be changed, disbanded, or increased, as the task changes. These types of organizations are expensive to run and may not offer job security, though they tend to offer excitement and challenge to employees (White et al., 1991).

The *person culture*, which is not found in many organizations, exists to meet the needs of its members, and to further their individual goals. Management hierarchies are impossible in this type of structure, unless agreed upon by all parties. Individuals may leave the organization, but the organization usually does not have the power to evict its members. In this type of culture, individuals are relied upon for their individual areas of expertise.

In their “Competing Values Framework,” developed from research focused on identifying traits of effective organizations, Cameron and Quinn (1999) also described four types of organizational culture, which they refer to as *hierarchy culture*, *market culture*, *clan culture*, and *adhocracy culture*. Although Handy’s (1985) and Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) culture types contain some similarities in their descriptions, there are also some distinct differences.

Similar to Handy’s (1985) *role culture*, the *hierarchy*, bureaucracy, culture focuses on procedures. This culture promotes structure and formality, in search of stability, predictability, and efficiency (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). This type of culture functions on a strict chain of command, with executives keeping a careful watch over employee’s progress on projects and tasks.

Market cultures are results driven, with a strong focus on accomplishing goals. Employees in these cultures tend to be competitive, while leaders maintain high expectations. This culture is external focused, so the market value of the organization is very important, as is reputation and overall success, especially compared to competitors.

The *clan culture* tends to be a social, family-like, environment where employees view each other as friends. Teamwork is encouraged, and organizational commitment tends to be high, as employees are driven by loyalty and shared goals. This culture type tends to focus less on procedures, and more on flexibility. Rules exist, but are usually unwritten, and are passed on to new employees as they become indoctrinated into the culture. *Clan cultures* tend to have a flat organization culture, where executives are viewed as mentors and encourage the growth of employees.

In the *adhocracy culture*, there is no central point of power, but it is shifted as necessary. This culture type tends to be an energetic and creative one, with a focus on creating new products, services, and resources. It is a rapidly changing environment, which offers even more flexibility than the clan culture does. Employees are offered much freedom and independence, and ingenuity and creativity are encouraged. Leaders in this culture tend to be innovators and visionaries who are willing to take calculated risks.

Instead of organizational culture types, Denison and Mishra (1995) utilized 15 years of research on 1,000 companies to develop a model of critical traits of organizational culture (Goldston, 2007). Each of the four traits - *consistency*, *involvement*, *mission*, and *adaptability* – contains three management practices associated with that particular trait. Goldston (2007) noted that Denison later expanded the model with Neale (Denison & Neal, 1996), and later with Young (Denison & Young, 1999). Though focused on characteristic traits rather than describing cultural norms, Denison and Mishra's traits of organizational culture bear some resemblances to Cameron and Quinn's organizational culture types.

The *mission trait* focuses on defining the organization's goals. As in *market cultures*, goals are clearly outlined and guide the activities of employees. Leaders in organizations with this trait carefully monitor if goals are being achieved, and make decisions based on goal achievement. As the organization's mission changes, so does its culture (Denison & Mishra, 1995).

The *adaptability trait* is found in cultures like the *adhocracy culture*, who are able to successfully make changes based on external factors, such as the needs of their

customers, or market trends. Adaptability may at times require adjustments in the internal procedures and practises of the organization.

The *consistency trait* emphasizes a standard set of procedures, similar to the *hierarchy culture*. Organizations with this trait tend to have highly committed employees, and a very strong culture, based on a shared system of beliefs (Goldston, 2007). This trait shines in situations where organizations are faced with inconsistency and unpredictability. Because of this trait, organization members will respond and perform in a predictable manner (Goldston, 2007).

The *involvement trait*, similar to the *clan culture*, encourages organization employees to become involved in the organization. The belief is that the more involved employees are, the more responsibility and commitment they will feel towards the organization. Employees are empowered to become more involved in all aspects of the organization, including decision making in areas that affect the overall organization. Organizations with this trait tend to be less bureaucratic, due to the input of employees.

Denison and Mishra (1995) found that different trait combinations were associated with particular organizational outcomes. For example, while *adaptability* and *involvement* were found to be the best predictors of organizational innovation, *mission* and *consistency* were found to be the best predictors of profitability, but *adaptability* and *mission* were the best predictors of sales growth (Goldston, 2007).

Before examining the relationship between organizational culture and job satisfaction, this literature review will first provide a historical overview of job satisfaction, and review some of the theoretical models of job satisfaction. The next two

sections will serve as an introduction to the concept of job satisfaction, as an overview of this concept will assist in understanding how it relates to organizational culture.

A Historical Overview of Job Satisfaction

While more than 10,000 studies, some dating back to the start of the 20th century, had been conducted on job satisfaction before 1997, the term “job satisfaction” was not widely used, and was only infrequently found in literature prior to the late-1940’s (Wright, 2006). Taylor (1911) was one of the first researchers to study the relationship between production and employee satisfaction (Adams, 2000). Taylor’s goal was to help organizations maximize their profits, while also providing prosperity for the employees through higher wages and helping each worker achieve their highest potential, which he believed would result in higher self-respect (Adams, 2000).

In the 1920’s and 1930’s research was conducted at the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electric Company to examine how factors such as lighting, humidity, and temperature would affect productivity (Adams, 2000). Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) analyzed the data from the study and found that the productivity increased whether the quality of the physical conditions increased or decreased. They discovered that the increase in productivity was due to the workers’ awareness that they were being observed – a phenomenon which would come to be known as the “Hawthorne effect” (Adams, 2000). The Hawthorne Studies began to investigate employee boredom, monotony, and fatigue (Demas, 2011) before the focus shifted to look at employee attitudes, since the desired results were not being achieved from investigating environmental variables alone (Wright, 2006).

Though researched by industrial and organizational psychologists for almost a century – including prominent consulting psychologist, Houser (1927), who conducted research involving employees in the manufacturing and public utilities industries; and Kornhauser (1933), who studied employee attitudes and how to measure them – Robert Hoppock (1935) was the first to publish an intensive study on job satisfaction which included the various factors historically found to influence job satisfaction (Gamber, 2005). Hoppock included variables not studied before, including working conditions, fatigue, monotony, and supervision (Gamber, 2005). In what was considered a landmark study (Wright, 2006), Hoppock (1937) reported job satisfaction levels for a sample of American Psychological Association Psychologists. Hoppock found that, when compared to persons in other vocations, Psychologists were no more satisfied with their jobs (Wright, 2006).

Super's (1939) later study on the relationship between job satisfaction and occupational level contained a number of observations, such as differences in satisfaction level among workers at different job levels, that would prompt numerous future job satisfaction studies (Wright, 2006). Super found that differences existed in the average job satisfaction of professional, managerial, and commercial workers, with the professional workers reporting the highest levels of satisfaction (Wright, 2006).

Wright (2006) pointed out that following these two articles, the first published in the *Journal of Applied Psychology* with the words “job/work satisfaction” in the title, it would be almost 10 years before another article focused on job satisfaction would be published in the *Journal of Applied Psychology*, though by the early 1950's interest in job satisfaction research would increase. Between the 1920's and 1960's, a large amount of

research was conducted to measure work attitudes. As labor unions gained popularity in the 1950's and 1960's, workers' satisfaction became more important to management (Demas, 2011), which contributed to the increase in research on job satisfaction. Demas (2011) noted that the Hawthorne study, as well as studies conducted by Kornhauser and Houser, helped to increase the understanding of worker satisfaction and productivity, and pave the way for research being done even today. According to Wright (2006), research on job satisfaction continues to build on the work of early pioneers by examining aspects such as employee boredom, employee fatigue, employee well-being, and customer satisfaction. There is still a need for research on the link between job satisfaction and employee performance, and modern researchers will benefit from examining early research on these topics (Wright, 2006).

Theoretical Models of Job Satisfaction

While Hoppock (1935) defined job satisfaction as a combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances which leads a person to express satisfaction with their job, Locke (1969) defined job satisfaction as “a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values” (p. 316). Of course, this achievement, as well as the pleasurable emotional state, are subjective.

The results of Hanson, Martin, and Tuch’s (1987) study, however, found that intrinsic rewards such as professional interest, job responsibility, psychological recognition, career advancement, skill utilization and development, enjoyment of work, and autonomy in decision-making were important determinants of both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Schroder, 2003).

The satisfaction or happiness that people feel with their jobs is a part of their overall level of satisfaction with their workplace (Robertson & Cooper, 2011). Being happy with one's work and workplace is extremely important, as a person's job satisfaction has an important influence on their overall psychological well-being (Robertson & Cooper, 2011). Kemery et al.'s (1987) study found that job satisfaction and physical health were linked to employees' intention to leave the workplace.

Maslow's (1954) "hierarchy of needs" describes the five basic human needs. In order of importance, these are physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization. The lower level needs (physiological, safety, social) must be acquired before the higher level needs (esteem and self-actualization) can be pursued. If the lower level needs are not satisfied, a person is unable and unmotivated to seek out the higher level needs. If an employee does not feel that an organization is meeting their basic needs, they will be less likely to feel a sense of job satisfaction, and less likely to perform at their full potential.

Building on Maslow's theory, Alderfer (1972) developed the Existence, Relatedness, and Growth (ERG) theory of motivation, which focused on three separate categories, as opposed to five, as found in Maslow's theory. Alderfer's categories of need were Existence needs – material and physical needs, which are satisfied by things such as water, air, money and working conditions; Relatedness needs – needs which involve other people and are satisfied by meaningful social interaction and personal relationships; and Growth needs – needs which are satisfied through creative and productive contributions (Brown, 2005). Alderfer's theory closely resembles Maslow's theory, in that Alderfer's existence needs are similar to Maslow's physiological and safety needs; his relatedness needs resemble Maslow's social needs, and to some extent

esteem needs; and his growth needs bear similarity to Maslow's esteem and self-actualization needs. One major difference between the two theories, however, is that Alderfer believed that individuals could be motivated by needs from different levels at the same time. Another major difference is Alderfer's suggestion that if a higher level need is not met, individuals will regress to lower level needs (or vice versa), which seem easier to meet. Alderfer referred to this as the frustration-regression principle (Lazaroiu, 2015).

An employee is less likely to feel happy with their work and workplace if they question their job security, or do not have a sense of belonging. For such individuals, higher level needs (such as advancement), may not be a strong enough motivator to promote higher levels of job satisfaction. While there are similarities and differences between Maslow and Alderfer's theories on motivation, the major point for managers to note is that an individual's behavior is "motivated by a desire to satisfy the need that is most important at a specific point or period in time" (Schroder, 2003, p. 20). This means that what may motivate an employee at one point in their career, may not necessarily work later. As needs change, so will the effective motivators.

As discussed in Chapter 1, Herzberg's theory is based on the notion that there are two types of factors which affect job satisfaction: motivation factors, or satisfiers, which include achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement; and hygiene factors, or dissatisfiers, such as company policy and administration, supervision, relationships with supervisors and peers, work conditions, salary, status, and security.

A review of these theories shows that Herzberg's hygiene factors resemble Maslow's lower level needs, while the motivation factors seem to mirror Maslow's higher level needs. Using these theories in conjunction can be beneficial to an organization, based on their existing relationship. Maslow's and Alderfer's theories can be used to identify an employee's level of need, after which Herzberg's theory can be applied to increase the employee's level of job satisfaction, by raising or diminishing the appropriate satisfier or dissatisfier.

The Impact of Gender and Length of Employment on Job Satisfaction

Studies on the impact of gender and length of time at an organization on the job satisfaction of employees have produced mixed results. Some researchers found that gender was a predictor of job satisfaction (Bonte & Krabel, 2014; Khan, Ramzan, & Butt, 2013; Lindorff, 2011; Oshagbemi, 2003; Sentuna, 2015), and that an employee's gender could influence the way that the values of an organization affect the employee, and by extension, their level of job satisfaction (Bellou, 2010; McMurray et al., 2000; Olorunsola, 2010). Others found that there is no significant correlation between job satisfaction and gender (Berry, 2016; Saiti & Papadopoulos, 2015; Stebbins, 2008).

According to Berry (2016) literature on the relationship between job satisfaction and gender suggests that differences in job satisfaction levels will be caused by what a person values in the workplace, their goals, and expectations. Berry (2016) goes on to state that some research shows that women are more satisfied when factors other than pay are considered, while men appear more satisfied when pay is considered. This, however, does not align with the findings of other studies which found that gender had very little

influence on job satisfaction. The difference in findings suggests that there is room for more research on the impact of gender on the job satisfaction of employees (Berry, 2016).

The research on the impact of length of time on job satisfaction also reflects differing conclusions. While some researchers found that length of time of service had a negative correlation with job satisfaction (Ma & MacMillan, 1999; Oshagbemi, 2003) – perhaps due to frustrations related to unmet expectations and inability to reach personal goals, such as career advancement (Stebbins, 2008) – other research suggests that the relationship between employees and their coworkers and supervisors strengthens over time, which will increase the level of job satisfaction experienced by employees (Dike, 2011). Conversely, there is research that shows that a greater length of time at an organization does not lead to greater job satisfaction (Sharma, 2009). There is also research that found that length of service had an impact on job satisfaction, but only for part-time employees, not for full-time employees (Kirk, 2003). These differing findings suggest a need for more research on the impact of length of employment on job satisfaction.

The Relationship Between Organizational Culture and Job Satisfaction

Stebbins (2008) noted that studies by both Odom et al. (1990) and Sheridan (1992) have revealed “a positive relationship between people-oriented, supportive, cultures and job satisfaction” (p. 5). While Stebbins (2008), like a number of other researchers (Ahamed & Mahmood, 2015; Alexander, 2012; Hebb, 1949; Kline & Boyd, 1994; Morse, 1953; Sempane et al., 2002; Zammuto & Krakower, 1991), confirmed a relationship between organizational culture and job satisfaction, Wallach (1983)

emphasized that favorable individual job outcomes, such as job satisfaction, depended on the match between an individual's characteristics and the organization's culture.

High levels of job satisfaction result in low levels of turnover, accidents, and absences (Freed, 2003), which can be costly to the organization, and quite disruptive, resulting in decreased levels of productivity (Koh & Boo, 2001). According to Ellickson (2002), satisfied employees tend to exhibit more favorable behaviors, such as exceeding the formal requirements of their jobs, while dissatisfied employees display behaviors such as withdrawal, burnout and aggression.

While there are various facets or components of job satisfaction, such as satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with opportunities for advancement, satisfaction with the work itself that constitutes the employee's role, satisfaction with the quality of supervision, and satisfaction with the relationship with coworkers (Werner, 1994), each of these facets is influenced by the culture that exists in an organization. This is why matching an individual's character traits to the appropriate organizational culture (Chen, Sparrow, & Cooper, 2016; Silverthorne, 2004; Wallach, 1983) is important, as what gives one employee a high sense of job satisfaction may not have the same result with another employee. For example, if the organizational culture promotes a flat structure, then it is likely that employees will feel comfortable speaking with their supervisors about ideas or issues they face, since the culture encourages employees to view supervisors as peers. In a top-down structure, it is more likely that employees will feel like subordinates to their supervisors, since the organization promotes a culture with clearly defined lines of authority. One employee may feel a higher sense of job satisfaction in a flat structure, while another employee may prefer the top-down structure.

This literature review will now provide a historical overview of employee engagement before discussing the relationship among organizational culture, job satisfaction, and employee engagement.

A Historical Overview of Employee Engagement

Some researchers have suggested that employee engagement is not a new concept, but is simply a rebranding of a number of old constructs, including organizational commitment, job commitment and job satisfaction, while other studies have found employee engagement to be an entirely distinct empirical construct (Harper, 2015). Scholars generally do agree, however, that the concept of employee engagement was first introduced by William Kahn in 1990 (Li, 2016), in an article published in the *Academy of Management Journal* (Dagher, Chapa, & Junaid, 2015). Kahn (1990) conducted a study to determine how job variables, including management, role clarity, and resource ability, affected employee's involvement in work tasks. Referring to what he called personal engagement, Kahn (1990) noted that "in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, emotionally and mentally during role performances" (p. 694). Kahn (1990) pointed out that the conditions necessary for engagement were meaningfulness – a sense that investing oneself in the performance of the role was worth it; safety – the ability to be oneself, without fear of negative impacts to one's self-image, status or career; and availability – possessing the physical, emotional and psychological resources necessary to perform in the role.

Dagher et al. (2015) suggested that even prior to Kahn, characteristics of employee engagement have been found in literature, though the term "employee engagement" was not used. Dagher et al. (2015) pointed out that Taylor (1911) sought to

increase productivity through elements of employee engagement, namely cooperation, harmony and combined intellectual work. Taylor stressed rewarding employees for their willingness to perform and improve their skills, because by rewarding those improvements employees would be motivated and willing to continuously improve. He also suggested that adequate feedback is required so that employees know what is expected of them, and what improvements they need to make. This bears similarities to the employee engagement principle that providing employees clear expectations and feedback promotes employee engagement (Dagher et al., 2015). While Taylor promoted training employees with the skills necessary to fulfil their work duties, he also suggested that supervisors should ensure that the work is meaningful and has purpose – in essence, they should make sure that the work is engaging (Dagher et al., 2015).

Kahn himself drew influence from a number of sources (Dagher et al., 2015), including Goffman's (1961) interactionist theory, as evidenced by his comments regarding role performance and how much of their true selves individuals attach to or detach from the roles they take on. (Jacobs, 2013; Shuck & Wollard, 2009). Kahn was also influenced by Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs, and Alderfer's (1972) ERG theory, and noted that meaningfulness, safety, and availability of physical, emotional, and cognitive resources (Jacobs, 2013) are important to fully understanding why a person becomes engaged (Shuck & Wollard, 2009).

Kahn's study would remain the only empirical research on employee engagement until Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter's (2001) study focused on why employees develop job burnout (Shuck & Wollard, 2009). The following year, Harter, Schmidt and Hayes (2002) published one of the most definitive pieces of literature on

employee engagement, becoming the first to look at employee engagement at the business unit level (Shuck & Wollard, 2009). Their study would prove to be a catalyst for the rapid expansion of interest in employee engagement (Shuck & Wollard, 2009).

The Relationship Among Organizational Culture, Job Satisfaction, and Employee Engagement

According to Li (2016), job satisfaction has been viewed as one of the important elements of employee engagement. Smith (2016) also noted that engaged employees are empowered, and there exists a positive correlation between staff empowerment, job satisfaction and job performance.

Li (2016) pointed out that Harter et al. (2002) and the Gallup Study (2006) both categorize employees into three groups. Engaged employees are those that work with high levels of energy and enthusiasm, and feel a “profound connection” (p. 27) to their organization. Not Engaged employees are identified as passive, “checked out” (p. 27), and not putting much energy or passion into their work. The last category, the Actively Disengaged, actively spread their disengaged attitude throughout the organization, and purposefully undermine the accomplishments of their engaged colleagues.

Employee engagement, defined by Harter et al. (2002) as an “individual’s involvement and satisfaction with as well as enthusiasm for work” (p. 269), plays a major role in the overall success of the organization. According to Fairbanks (2007), improved performance, teamwork, satisfaction, as well as more cohesiveness, are all reported by employees when they are a part of an engaged team. Employees who are engaged in the workplace are typically healthier, happier (Kanter, 1993), and more productive (Christian et al., 2011), which in turn results in an organization that attains higher levels of customer

satisfaction (Hunter, Bedell, & Mumford, 2007). Additionally, engaged employees report higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment as well as lower levels of turn-over intentions (Christian et al., 2011), which results in higher employee retention rates. Organizations such as Ultimate Software, Salesforce and Google, which are all hailed for their employee-focused culture, have successfully created cultures that result in high job satisfaction and engagement of employees (Forbes Technology Council, 2018; Fortune, 2017; Great Place to Work, 2018; Patel, 2015; Rushdi & Kamal, 2014).

Despite all of the literature showing the importance of employee engagement on organizational success, Crabtree (2013), reporting on the results of a Gallup Poll of 225,087 employees, noted that a mere 13% of the employees reported being engaged at work, while 63% identified as not engaged, and 24% of the respondents admitted to being actively disengaged. While some researchers have proposed that employee engagement can be improved by enhancing organizational culture (Attridge, 2009) and others have stated that organizational culture significantly predicts engagement (Sarangi & Srivastava, 2012), Harper (2015) noted that, unfortunately, much research has been done on organizational culture and employee engagement separately, but little attention has been given to the relationship between organizational culture and employee engagement.

Outcomes of the Relationship Among Organizational Culture, Job Satisfaction and Employee Engagement

Employee Retention

As previously noted, a healthy organizational culture can lead to positive employee outcomes, including job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Alexander, 2012; Ritchie, 2000). Organizational commitment is “the strength of an

individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (Porter et al., 1974, p. 604). Research has shown that the degree to which an employee identifies with an organization, as well as their commitment to ensure the organization achieves its goals, is indicated by their level of engagement (Little & Little, 2006). Employee engagement actually received much attention and popularity, especially in management literature, because of its demonstrated statistical relationship with desired corporate outcomes, including productivity, profit, customer satisfaction, and employee retention (Little & Little, 2006).

Organizational commitment is characterized by three main factors: a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a definite desire to maintain organizational membership. Employees who are invested in the goals and values of the organization – that is, engaged employees – are more likely to stay with the organization and to aid in goal achievement (Porter et al., 1974). An Employee’s level of happiness or satisfaction with their jobs and the work they do is a part of their overall satisfaction with the workplace (Robertson & Cooper, 2011). Employees who are happy will be more likely to stay with the organization as job satisfaction and physical health are linked to employees’ intention to leave the workplace (Kemery et al., 1987).

In a chapter titled “Organizational Culture and Retention,” Meyer and Topolnytsky (2000) stated that employee commitment and retention is related to perceived organizational values. This is an important point to note, as organizational values are based on organizational culture. Organizational culture plays a major part in whether or not employees choose to stay with an organization. Meyer and Topolnytsky

continued that employee-oriented values are likely to be universally appealing, and to promote commitment and retention. Conversely, task or rule-oriented values, especially when they take precedence over employee-oriented values, can have a negative effect. In essence, while one particular culture is not better than another, cultures that view people as important, and emphasize certain values, including interpersonal relationships and development or change, seem to lead to higher levels of retention (Meyer & Topolnytsky, 2000).

Referencing Sheridan's (1992) findings, Meyer and Topolnytsky (2000) noted that organizations with cultures that promote strong relationship values may be at risk of increasing not only the retention of their strong employees but also the weak ones. These cultures will reduce "both dysfunctional and functional turnover" (Meyer & Topolnytsky, 2000, p. 13). Although not universally attractive, cultures that promote work-task values will appeal more to strong performers than to weaker ones. Meyer and Topolnytsky (2000) suggested that this dilemma should be handled like any other business decision, and a cost-benefit analysis should be considered. They also pointed out that if the selecting and hiring process is effective, then even the organization's weaker employees would be performing effectively, and so this sort of culture, which retains both stronger and weaker employees, would not prove disadvantageous.

Hiring, and retaining, the right people is important to the overall success of the organization (Collins, 2001). When in doubt about whether or not to hire an individual, it is better not to hire, and instead keep looking (Collins, 2001). When it becomes evident that an employee is the wrong person for the job, action should be taken immediately (Collins, 2001). The right person for a particular job should not require a lot of

management, nor should compensation be their main motivator. “The right people will do the right things and deliver the best results they're capable of, regardless of the incentive system” (Collins, 2001, p. 50). Compensation should not be used to “get the right behaviors from the wrong people” (p. 50), but should instead be used to recruit and retain the right people - who are engaged in the organization, easily motivated, and require less management (Collins, 2001). Reward systems, such as compensation, should not cause the desired behavior, but should instead be reinforcing such behaviors (Kerr, 1995).

Organizational culture does have a direct relationship with employee retention. A work place culture deemed unsatisfactory by employees because it ignores the needs of its employees, easily results in dissatisfied employees who are motivated to leave the organization and seek employment opportunities elsewhere (Atkins & Turner, 2006). However, organizations with a satisfactory work place culture facilitate an enjoyable, even fun, work environment, which leads to high morale, and low turnover (Sadri & Lees, 2001).

Work-Life Balance

It is hard for employees to experience job satisfaction when their jobs come into conflict with their personal lives. Gainey and Clenney (2006) found that employees often experience such conflicts due to increased work place demands and personal life responsibilities. Work-life balance is an important component of job satisfaction which is why organizations have taken steps to incorporate alternate work arrangements to help employees balance their lives (Gainey & Clenney, 2006). Organizations have realized that work-life balance can play a role in employee retention, as factors such as work-

family conflict and unhealthy work relationships can affect employees' decision to stay with, or leave, an organization (Ackerman & Bezuidenhout, 2007), and this is why establishing an organizational culture that promotes work-life balance is important.

Work-life balance is not a new concept. Scholars have been researching and growing the knowledge base of work-life balance for more than a decade (Cowan & Hoffman, 2007). While there is no single, agreed upon definition for the term work-life balance (Thomas, 2013), Frone (2003) noted that the most widely used definition of work-life balance is a lack of conflict or interference between work and family roles.

Occupational stress is the perception that workplace demands exceed employee capacity to meet those demands (Topper, 2007). Excessive occupational stress results in a decrease in an employee's functioning in the workplace, and a decreased quality of life for the employee (Elfering et al., 2008). Dickinson and Wright (2008) found burnout to be a consequence of persistent occupational stress.

Work-life balance is important as employees need to be freed from stressors and distractions in order to be effectively engaged in their jobs (Gryzwacz & Carlson, 2007). However, the attainment of work-life balance varies from person to person, as balance is unique to each individual (Murphy, 2005).

A person's work-life balance needs may change over their lifetime. The variation in each person's needs overtime makes developing work-life balance programs challenging for some organizations (Fulmano, 2005). Organizations should still strive to promote a healthy work-life balance as employees' ability to achieve work-life balance directly affects the organization's employee retention (Baldiga, 2005).

Summary and Analysis of the Review

Research seems to suggest that a relationship exists between organizational culture and job satisfaction; between organizational culture and employee engagement; and between job satisfaction and employee engagement. Yet, there remains a need for additional research on the relationships among these variables, as they have not been studied carefully enough (Harper, 2015; Schein, 2010).

First used in academic literature in 1979, the term “Organizational Culture” refers to the shared perceptions of organizational work practices within organizational units that may differ from other organizational units (Van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004), or more simply, as “a complex set of values, beliefs, assumptions, and symbols that define the way in which a firm conducts its business” (Barney, 1986, p. 657). An organization’s culture guides and constrains the behavior of members of the group due to the shared norms in the group (Schein, 2010).

Schein (2010), who viewed culture as an abstract phenomenon, defined three levels of organizational culture – *Artifacts*, *Espoused Beliefs and Values*, and *Basic Underlying Assumptions*. Denison (1997), viewed culture as a concrete and measurable construct. He described the levels of culture as the values and beliefs that underlie actions; the patterns of behavior that reflect and reinforce those values; and the set of conditions, created by these patterns of behavior, within which organizational members must function.

In identifying different types of cultures, researchers differed in their approaches. Handy (1985) described four types of organizational culture: power, role, task, and person. Most organizations consist of a mixture of different types of culture, with the

unique mixture being what makes each organization different, though the right mixture at the right time is what makes an organizational culture successful (Handy, 1985).

Cameron and Quinn (1999) also describe four types of organizational culture, in their “Competing Values Framework,” which they referred to as *hierarchy culture*, *market culture*, *clan culture*, and *adhocracy culture*. Instead of organizational culture types, Denison and Mishra (1995) developed a model of four traits of organizational culture: *consistency*, *involvement*, *mission*, and *adaptability*. Each of the four traits contained three management practices associated with that particular trait. Denison and Mishra (1995) found that different trait combinations were associated with a particular organizational outcome. Though focused on characteristic traits rather than culture types, Denison and Mishra’s traits of organizational culture bear some resemblances to Cameron and Quinn’s organizational culture types.

Job satisfaction is described as a combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances which leads a person to express satisfaction with their job (Hoppock, 1935), or a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values (Locke, 1969). Job satisfaction has an important influence on employees’ overall psychological well-being (Robertson & Cooper, 2011). Maslow (1954) described a hierarchy of human needs, made up of five levels. Alderfer (1972), building on Maslow’s theory, developed the ERG theory of motivation, which focused on three categories, instead of five. Alderfer’s existence needs are similar to Maslow’s psychological and safety needs; his relatedness needs resemble Maslow’s social needs, and to some extent esteem needs; and his growth needs bear similarity to Maslow’s esteem and self-actualization needs. While Maslow’s

theory suggests that needs are met in ascending order, Alderfer believed that individuals could be motivated by needs from different levels at the same time, and if needs at one level are not met, the individual will regress to needs at another level, which are easier to meet (Lazaroiu, 2015).

Herzberg (1968) believed that motivators were the primary cause of satisfaction, while hygiene factors were the primary cause of unhappiness on the job. Herzberg found that motivation factors, or satisfiers, were achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement. Conversely, Herzberg found that the major hygiene factors, or dissatisfiers, included company policy and administration, supervision, relationships with supervisors and peers, work conditions, salary, status, and security. While hygiene factors do not motivate employees, the lack of or inadequacy of these factors leads to dissatisfaction.

Job satisfaction has been viewed as one of the important elements of employee engagement (Li, 2016), which is defined as an “individual’s involvement and satisfaction with as well as enthusiasm for work” (Harter et al., 2002, p. 269). Employees who are engaged in the workplace are typically healthier, happier (Kanter, 1993), and more productive (Christian et al., 2011), which in turn results in an organization that attains higher levels of customer satisfaction (Hunter et al., 2007). Though little research has been done on the relationship between organizational culture and employee engagement, researchers have proposed that employee engagement can be enhanced by organizational culture (Attridge, 2009) which significantly predicts engagement (Sarangi & Srivastava, 2012).

Employee engagement received much attention and popularity, especially in management literature, because of its relationship with employee retention (Little & Little, 2006). Engaged employees report higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, as well as lower levels of turn-over intentions (Christian et al., 2011), which results in higher employee retention rates. Likewise job satisfaction and physical health are linked to employees' intention to leave the workplace (Kemery et al., 1987). Organizational culture also plays a part in employee retention, as employee commitment and retention is related to perceived organizational values (Meyer & Topolnytsky, 2000). Cultures that view people as important, and emphasize certain values, including interpersonal relationships and development or change, seem to lead to higher levels of retention. (Meyer & Topolnytsky, 2000). Cultures deemed unsatisfactory by employees because it ignores their needs results in dissatisfaction and turnover (Atkins & Turner, 2006), while organizations that provide an enjoyable, fun working environment, and high morale, result in low turnover (Sadri & Lees, 2001).

Factors such as work-family conflict and unhealthy work relationships can affect employees' decision to stay with, or leave, an organization (Ackerman & Bezuidenhout, 2007). Work-life balance is an important component of job satisfaction, which is why organizations have taken steps to incorporate alternate work arrangements to help employees balance their lives (Gainey & Clenney, 2006). Work-life balance is important as employees need to be freed from stressors and distractions in order to be effectively engaged in their jobs (Gryzwacz & Carlson, 2007). The variation in each persons' needs over time makes developing work-life balance programs challenging for some organizations (Fulmano, 2005), but this remains important, as employees' ability to

achieve work-life balance directly affects the organization's employee retention rates (Baldiga, 2005).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine employees' perceptions of the relationship between the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction and engagement.

This chapter provides an overview of the methods used for this study, the design of the study, the participants, the instruments used, and the data collection and analysis methods.

Research Design

This study utilized a quantitative, non-experimental, correlational method, while employing a cross-sectional approach with secondary data. A non-experimental methodology is used when a researcher is unable to manipulate the independent variable of a study, or assign participants to conditions. The main types of non-experimental research are single-variable research, correlational research, quasi-experimental research, and qualitative research. In correlational research, the research examines multiple variables and the relationship amongst them, but does not manipulate the variables. In quasi-experimental research, the researcher manipulates an independent variable, but does not randomly assign participants to conditions of the study. In qualitative research, data gathered is not numeric, and statistical analyses are not conducted. As this study

examined more than one variable, did not manipulate any of the variables, and conducted statistical analysis, the correlational research method was found to be most appropriate, as this method describes, and examines in a systematic way, the relationship between multiple variables (Porter & Carter, 2000). Additionally, this study employed a cross-sectional approach due to the fact that the data used was a snapshot of the population at a particular moment in time, and the data may be different if the same population is examined at another point in time.

A quantitative correlational method was used for this study since it would have provided a description, and an analysis, of the relationships among the variables.

Sample and Population

The participants for this study were all full-time employees of Northern Protection in June 2016. These employees were located in three different countries and varied in length of time employed by the organization. The survey was sent to all Northern Protection employees, with the expectation that all employees would voluntarily take the survey, except for the organization's executive team. For this reason, members of the executive team were not included in this study. While all employees were invited to participate in the survey, 76 out of a total of 104 employees (including executives) completed the survey. This equates to 73% of the total Northern Protection employee workforce answering the survey, and 27% who did not complete the survey. There is no sampling in this case, as the organization asked 100% of the employees to participate - making this a census, not a sample.

To maintain anonymity, employees were not asked for their names or titles. The only identifying information that was requested in the survey was gender, length of time with the organization, and department name.

Research and Null Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested to answer the research questions:

H₁: There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' perception of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction.

H₀₁: There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' perception of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction.

H₂: There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' perceptions of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job engagement.

H₀₂: There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' perceptions of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job engagement.

H₃: There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' length of time at a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction.

H₀₃: There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' length of time at a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction.

H₄: There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' gender and their job satisfaction.

H₀₄: There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' gender and their job satisfaction.

Definition of the Variables

This study consists of five variables: employee perceived organizational culture, job satisfaction, employee engagement, length of time at the company, and gender. Employee perceived organizational culture is “a complex set of values, beliefs, assumptions, and symbols that define the way in which a firm conducts its business” (Barney, 1986, p. 657). In order to observe and measure this variable, 15 items were used with a Likert scale of four categories from strongly agree = 1 to strongly disagree = 4. Examples of the items are “the leadership team is open and honest” and “my direct team lead is caring and approachable.” For the purpose of this study, the variable values are based on the mean score of the items that make up that variable. The conceptual and operational definition of the variables included in this study, are defined in Table 1.

Job Satisfaction is defined as “a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values” (Locke, 1969, p. 316). Seven items, such as “I have potential to advance my career here” and “I am recognized for my good work,” were used to measure this variable. Five of these items were also used to measure the engagement variable. Table 1 lists the specific questions used for each variable.

Employee engagement is defined as an “individual's involvement and satisfaction with as well as enthusiasm for work” (Harter et al., 2002, p.269). In addition to the five items also used for job satisfaction, this variable was comprised of the items “I do my job to the best of my ability” and “My work drives company success.” The scale used to

Table 1

Conceptual and Operational Definition of Variables

Variable	Conceptual Definition	Instrumental Definition	Operational Definition
Employee perceived organizational culture	“A complex set of values, beliefs, assumptions, and symbols that define the way in which a firm conducts its business” (Barney, 1986, p. 657)	Survey Questions 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 21, 23, 24	(Sum of Operational Survey Questions) / 15
Job satisfaction	“A pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values” (Locke, 1969, p. 316)	Survey Questions 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 20, 24	(Sum of Operational Survey Questions) / 7
Employee engagement	“Individual’s involvement and satisfaction with as well as enthusiasm for work” (Harter et al., 2002, p. 269)	Survey Questions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	(Sum of Operational Survey Questions) / 7
Length of time	Number of years employed at the organization	Length of Service	“Less than 12 months” = 1 “12 – 18 months” = 2 “18 – 24 months” = 3 “24 – 36 months” = 4 “More than 3 years” = 5
Gender	Self-identification as male or female	Gender (M/F)	“Female” = 0 “Male” = 1

measure this variable was one to four points exact interval. A higher score in this variable means lower engagement.

Length of time was defined as number of years employed at the organization and was measured by one item with five categories organized by months, from Less than 12 months = 1 to More than three years = 5. This is an ordinal scale variable.

The gender variable was defined as the participants' self-identification as male or female, and was measured by one item with two categories: Female = 0 and Male = 1. This is a dummy variable.

Instrumentation

This study used data collected by Northern Protection in June 2016. The organization conducted an online survey through the survey company, TemboStatus. The goal of this survey was to measure employee engagement and overall employee happiness, for the purpose of determining what areas of the organization's culture, if any, needed to be improved. The results of this survey are therefore considered the official findings and the standard by which Northern Protection would measure the success of its internal programs and culture.

The survey was considered to be standardized, in that the survey was a standard TemboStatus survey, which has been used for various other organizations, including Boeing, Coca-Cola and The National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). The only change made to the survey was to ensure that any titles used in the survey corresponded with those used internally at Northern Protection.

The version of the survey used was developed in 2014 by Susan Kamin, who holds a PhD in Industrial Psychology. The survey consisted of 27 questions and was completed online by all participants.

Data Collection Procedures

Rather than develop another instrument, and request permission to send a second survey to all of the employees, I requested access to the data already gathered for use in this study. The organization approved my request and expressed interest in the results of my analysis of the data and conclusions around the culture found at Northern Protection.

The study's research questions were not specifically answered by the data collected, in that the survey did not necessarily ask questions specifically regarding the research questions. Though the research questions were not addressed directly in the survey, the data collected did address the research questions (Booker, 2011).

Data was collected by Northern Protection, and I received permission to use the data. Permission was verbally requested from the Chief Executive Officer and the organization's Chief Operating Officer. I was directed to contact the Director of Human Resources via email, who subsequently provided both the data and permission to use the data, in the form of an authorization letter stating that I had been granted authorization to use the data gathered during the 2016 Employee Engagement survey for the purpose of this study. To repeat this study, researchers should contact the Director of Human Resources at Northern Protection to receive authorization to access and use the data.

Northern Protection sent an email to all employees informing them of the Employee Engagement survey, its purpose, and inviting them to participate. The email included a link to the survey which was hosted on a TemboStatus server along with

instructions on how to access the survey. A week before the expiration of the survey, another email was sent to all employees, reminding them to complete the survey.

The survey administered by TemboStatus was comprised of 27 questions. Questions 1 through 24 used a rating scale format where participants were asked to answer each question with one of the following options: “Strongly Agree,” “Agree,” “Disagree,” or “Strongly Disagree.” Question 25 was a multiple choice question, with answer options “Male” and “Female.” Question 26 was also a multiple choice question. The answer options for this question were “Less than 12 months,” “12 – 18 months,” “18 – 24 months,” “24 – 36 months,” and “More than 3 years.”

Northern Protection decided not to release the data gathered via question 27 for use in this study. It was believed that the responses to the last question, “Business/Support Unit?” made it too easy to identify individual participants, as some Business/Support Units at Northern Protection are very small. For this reason, the data gathered under this question is not included in this study. Question 22, “I have the necessary tools and resources to get work done” was electively not used in this study as it was not relevant to the topic, and did not fit into any of the variables used in this study.

Data Analysis

In describing the analysis of data collected via surveys, Smith (2016) noted that nonparametric and descriptive statistics methods are typically used (Burns & Grove, 2009) due to the ordinal nature of such data. Stangor (2010) defined descriptive statistics as “numbers that summarize the distribution of scores on a measured variable” (p. 42). He pointed out that distribution can be described by its central tendency or its spread.

Smith (2016) noted that the most effective way to determine the central tendency – that is, the point around which the data is centered – is to calculate the average.

The data were analyzed to assess the current state of job satisfaction based on specific aspects of the organizational culture of Northern Protection. Demographic data was analyzed to look for differences between genders. Length of time with the organization was also examined, to evaluate if any differences exist based on length of time in the culture.

The hypotheses were tested using correlation analysis, to examine the relationship between the variables. The data were entered into Microsoft Excel, then imported into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Statistics which was used to analyze the data, including calculating the average response for each question. Once the data were coded, surrogate variables from the survey were identified and matched to the research questions.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine employees' perceptions of the relationship between the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction and engagement.

A quantitative correlational method was used for this study since it would have provided a description, and an analysis, of the relationships among the variables.

This chapter presents the data collected as well as the analyses (conducted with the aid of IBM SPSS Statistics) used to answer the research questions, which include:

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' perceptions of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction?
2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' perceptions of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job engagement?
3. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' length of time at a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction?
4. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' gender and their job satisfaction?

This study utilized data collected by Northern Protection in June 2016. The organization conducted an online survey through the survey company, TemboStatus, with the goal of measuring employee engagement and overall employee happiness, for the purpose of determining what areas of the organization's culture, if any, needed to be improved. The standardized survey has been used for various other organizations, including Boeing, Coca-Cola and NASA. The only change made to the survey was to ensure that any titles used in the survey corresponded with those used internally at Northern Protection. The survey consisted of 27 questions and was completed online by all participants.

Participants

Participants in this study were all employees of Northern Protection. A total of 76 employees chose to complete the survey sent out by TemboStatus on behalf of Northern Protection. The survey included only two demographic questions, which were gender and length of service – that is, length of time working at Northern Protection. Table 2 provides an overview of the demographic characteristics of the participants. Fifty-nine (77.6%) of the participants were male, while 17 (22.4%) were female. Most of the participants had been employed at Northern Protection for less than a year and a half, with the largest percentage having less than 12 months (26.3%) of employment, followed by 12 – 18 months (23.7%) of employment. The smallest percentages were 18 – 24 months (13.2%) and 24 – 36 months (14.5%).

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	59	77.6
Female	17	22.4
Length of time		
Less than 12 months	20	26.3
12 – 18 months	18	23.7
18 – 24 months	10	13.2
24 – 36 months	11	14.5
More than 3 years	17	22.4

Variables Description

Twenty-five items were used to measure the variables in this study. Twenty-three of these items used a Likert type scale from 1= strongly agree to 4 = strongly disagree. Table 3 reports the minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation for each of these items. Seven of these items report some employees responding with strongly disagree. For the remaining 15 items, there is no indication of a strongly disagree response from participants. The lowest mean score is 1.36 for the item “I do my job to the best of my ability,” and the highest is 2.08 for the item “I get training that is helping me grow in my career.”

Table 3

Survey Items' Mean, Standard Deviation and Range.

Question		Min	Max	Mean	SD
1.	I love my job	1	3	1.49	0.554
2.	I am proud to work at my company	1	3	1.53	0.528
3.	I do my job to the best of my ability	1	3	1.36	0.534
4.	I am proud of the work I do	1	3	1.51	0.529
5.	My work drives company success	1	3	1.55	0.575
6.	I find my work energizing	1	3	1.93	0.618
7.	I enjoy working with my co-workers	1	3	1.50	0.554
8.	The leadership team is open and honest	1	3	1.59	0.546
9.	Our leadership team is a strong group of competent professionals	1	3	1.54	0.552
10.	The leadership team is approachable	1	3	1.38	0.541
11.	My direct team lead is a competent leader	1	4	1.38	0.565
12.	My direct team lead is caring and approachable	1	4	1.37	0.629
13.	My direct team lead is open and honest	1	4	1.38	0.565
14.	My direct team lead is encouraging	1	3	1.43	0.550
15.	I regularly get useful feedback from my direct team lead	1	4	1.74	0.640
16.	I have good team dynamics with my co-workers	1	3	1.57	0.550
17.	My co-workers are fun and caring toward me	1	3	1.50	0.554
18.	I can get my ideas heard by the right person	1	4	1.74	0.661
19.	I am well informed by the organization	1	3	1.70	0.566
20.	I have the potential to advance my career here	1	3	1.91	0.615
21.	I get training that is helping me grow in my career	1	4	2.08	0.726
23.	I recognize my colleagues for their good work	1	3	1.75	0.635
24.	I am recognized for my good work	1	4	1.88	0.673

The 23 items reported in Table 3 were used to measure the employee perceived organizational culture, job satisfaction, and employee engagement variables of this study. Employee perceived organizational culture was measured by fifteen questions. The survey questions had a range from 1 to 2.73, with mean of 1.60 and standard deviation of 0.40.

The job satisfaction variable was measured by seven questions. The minimum was 1, the maximum was 2.57, the mean was 1.67, and the standard deviation was 0.39 for the questions associated with this variable.

The employee engagement variable was measured by seven questions. The minimum was 1, the maximum was 2.43, the mean was 1.55, and the standard deviation was 0.38 for the questions associated with this variable.

Table 4 lists the minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation for each of the variables used in this study. By averaging the results of each relevant question, for each participant, scores were obtained for employee perceived organizational culture, job satisfaction and employee engagement. These scores were used in determining the descriptive statistics for those variables.

Table 4

Variable Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Employee perceived organizational culture	1	2.73	1.6018	0.40412
Job satisfaction	1	2.57	1.6786	0.39940
Employee engagement	1	2.43	1.5526	0.37929
Gender	0	1	0.7800	0.41900
Length of time	1	5	2.8300	1.52700

Hypotheses Testing

This study examined four research questions, each of which had an accompanying hypothesis which was tested to answer the research questions. Bivariate correlational analysis was conducted, using the appropriate variables, to test each null hypothesis.

Does a Relationship Exist Between Organizational Culture and Job Satisfaction at a Toronto-based Technology Company?

H_{01} : “There is no statistically significant relationship between employees’ perception of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction” was used to test this research question. Table 5 shows the correlation between employee perceived organizational culture and job satisfaction. The correlation between these two variables was noted at .787, and there was a significant correlation at the 0.01 level, indicating a strong positive relationship between the variables.

Table 5

Correlation for All Variables

Variable	Employee perceived organizational culture	Job Satisfaction	Employee Engagement	Gender	Length of time
Employee perceived organizational culture	1	.787**	.740**	-0.05	0.019
Job satisfaction		1	.931**	-0.014	0.049
Employee engagement			1	-0.027	-0.068
Gender				1	0.023
Length of time					1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Does Organizational Culture Affect Employee Engagement?

H_{02} : “There is no statistically significant relationship between employees’ perceptions of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job engagement” was used to test this research question. Table 5 shows the correlation between employee perceived organizational culture and employee

engagement. The correlation between these two variables was noted at .740, and there was a significant correlation at the 0.01 level, indicating a strong positive relationship between the variables.

Does Length of Time at the Organization Affect the Job Satisfaction of Employees?

H₀₃: “There is no statistically significant relationship between employees’ length of time at a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction” was used to test this research question. Table 5 shows the correlation between length of time and job satisfaction. The correlation between these two variables was noted at .049, with a significance score of 0.673, which indicates that there is little to no correlation between these variables, and that there is not a statistically significant correlation.

Does the Employee’s Gender Play a Role in Their Experience at the Company?

H₀₄: “There is no statistically significant relationship between employees’ gender and their job satisfaction” was used to test this research question. Table 5 shows the correlation between gender and job satisfaction. The correlation between these two variables was noted at -0.014, with a significance score of 0.903. This data presented in Table 5 suggests that there is no significant correlation between gender and job satisfaction.

Table 5 summarizes all of the correlations amongst the variables. As previously noted, significant correlations exist between employee perceived organizational culture and job satisfaction, and between employee perceived organizational culture and employee engagement. As indicated in Table 5, there is also a very strong correlation

between job satisfaction and employee engagement. In fact, this correlation, of .931, is the strongest correlation between any of the variables. Neither gender nor length of time have any significant correlation with any other variables.

Summary

The purpose of this quantitative, non-experimental, correlational study was to examine employees' perceptions of the relationship between the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction and engagement. This chapter presented the analysis conducted to answer the research questions designed to fulfil the purpose of this study.

Bivariate correlational analyses were utilized in testing the hypothesis associated with each of the four research questions. The results showed that the employee perceived organizational culture at Northern Protection has a positive correlation on the job satisfaction of the organization's employees. Employee perceived organizational culture also has a positive correlation on employee engagement. The findings of this study show that an employee's length of time with the organization does not have a positive correlation on their job satisfaction – and in fact, there is no statistically significant correlation between an employee's length of time with the organization, and their job satisfaction. Likewise, no correlation between an employee's gender and job satisfaction was found.

While there was no specific research question regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and employee engagement, the analysis conducted for this study did reveal a strong correlation between job satisfaction and employee engagement. This finding did match expectations based on the literature review.

The findings did not support two of the research hypotheses - H_3 : There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' length of time at a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction, and H_4 : There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' gender and their job satisfaction. It was expected that the longer an employee was employed at the organization, the greater their level of job satisfaction would be. Instead, the data shows that length of time with the organization has no significant impact on level of job satisfaction. Similarly, the study did not demonstrate that there is a correlation between gender and job satisfaction. There is not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis of no correlation between gender and job satisfaction, so the null hypothesis is retained.

Chapter 5 summarises the study, presents the findings from Chapter 4, interprets and discusses these findings, and provides recommendations.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSION

Introduction

This final chapter presents a summary of the study, and its findings. This chapter also interprets and discusses those findings as well as their implications, and provides recommendations for both practice and future research.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine employees' perceptions of the relationship between the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction and engagement.

Summary of the Literature

The literature review included in this study began by looking at the history and development of organizational culture, and types of organizational culture, before describing the emergence of job satisfaction and its relationship to organizational culture. The review provided a brief historical overview of employee engagement, followed by a description of the relationship between employee engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational culture. The review also examined the outcomes of this relationship – namely, employee retention and work-life balance – and concluded with a summary and analysis of the topics covered. The review focused on literature pertaining to the topics

of organizational culture, job satisfaction, work-life balance, and employee retention. A variety of documents, including journals, dissertations, research papers, and books, were reviewed for this literature review.

The research examined suggested that a relationship exists between organizational culture and job satisfaction; between organizational culture and employee engagement; and between job satisfaction and employee engagement. The literature also noted that there remains a need for additional research on the relationships among these variables as they have not been studied carefully enough (Harper, 2015; Schein, 2010).

The term “Organizational Culture” first appeared in academic literature in 1979. The term refers to the shared perceptions of organizational work practices within organizational units that may differ from other organizational units (Van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004), or more simply, it is “a complex set of values, beliefs, assumptions, and symbols that define the way in which a firm conducts its business” (Barney, 1986, p. 657). An organization’s culture guides, and constrains, the behavior of members of the group, due to the shared norms in the group (Schein, 2010).

Schein (2010) viewed culture as an abstract phenomenon. He defined three levels of organizational culture – *Artifacts*, *Espoused Beliefs and Values*, and *Basic Underlying Assumptions* – while Denison (1997), who viewed culture as a concrete and measurable construct, described the levels of culture as the values and beliefs that underlie actions; the patterns of behavior that reflect and reinforce those values; and the set of conditions, created by these patterns of behavior, within which organizational members must function.

Handy (1985) described four types of organizational culture: *power*, *role*, *task*, and *person*. He believed that organizations consist of a mixture of different types of culture, with the unique mixture being what makes each organization different, though the right mixture at the right time is what makes an organizational culture successful (Handy, 1985). Cameron and Quinn (1999) also describe four types of organizational culture, in their “Competing Values Framework,” which they referred to as *hierarchy culture*, *market culture*, *clan culture*, and *adhocracy culture*. Instead of organizational culture types, Denison and Mishra (1995) developed a model of four traits of organizational culture – *consistency*, *involvement*, *mission*, and *adaptability* – and found that different trait combinations were associated with a particular organizational outcome. Each of the four traits contained three management practices associated with that particular trait. Denison and Mishra’s traits of organizational culture, although focused on characteristic traits rather than culture types, bear some resemblances to Cameron and Quinn’s organizational culture types.

Job satisfaction has been described as a combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances which leads a person to express satisfaction with their job (Hoppock, 1935). It has also been described as “a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values” (Locke, 1969, p. 316). Job satisfaction has an important influence on an employee’s overall psychological well-being (Robertson & Cooper, 2011). Maslow (1954) described a hierarchy of human needs, made up of five levels. Alderfer (1972), building on Maslow’s theory, developed the ERG theory of motivation, which focused on three categories, instead of five. Alderfer’s existence

needs are similar to Maslow's psychological and safety needs; his relatedness needs resemble Maslow's social needs, and to some extent esteem needs; and his growth needs bear similarity to Maslow's esteem and self-actualization needs. Unlike Maslow's theory, which suggested that needs are met in ascending order, Alderfer believed that individuals could be motivated by needs from different levels at the same time, and if needs at one level are not met, the individual will regress to needs at another level, which are easier to meet (Lazaroiu, 2015).

Frederick Herzberg (1968), who developed the Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction, or Motivation-Hygiene Theory, believed that the motivators, or satisfiers – achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement – were the primary cause of satisfaction, while hygiene factors, or dissatisfiers – company policy and administration, supervision, relationships with supervisors and peers, work conditions, salary, status, and security – were the primary cause of unhappiness on the job. While hygiene factors do not motivate employees, the lack of or inadequacy of these factors leads to dissatisfaction.

Job satisfaction has been viewed as one of the important elements of employee engagement (Li, 2016). Employee engagement is defined as an “individual's involvement and satisfaction with as well as enthusiasm for work” (Harter et al., 2002, p. 269). Workplace benefits of engaged employees include typically healthier, happier (Kanter, 1993), and more productive (Christian et al., 2011) employees, which in turn results in an organization that attains higher levels of customer satisfaction (Hunter et al., 2007). Though little research has been done on the relationship between organizational culture and employee engagement, researchers have proposed that employee engagement

can be enhanced by organizational culture (Attridge, 2009), which significantly predicts engagement (Sarangi & Srivastava, 2012).

Employee engagement's attention and popularity in management literature is due to its relationship with employee retention (Little & Little, 2006). Engaged employees report higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and lower levels of turn-over intentions (Christian et al., 2011), resulting in higher employee retention rates. Job satisfaction and physical health have also been linked to employees' intention to leave the workplace (Kemery et al., 1987). Similarly, organizational culture has been shown to play a part in employee retention, as employee commitment and retention is related to perceived organizational values (Meyer & Topolnytsky, 2000). Organizational cultures that view people as important and emphasize values such as interpersonal relationships, development and change, seem to lead to higher levels of retention. (Meyer & Topolnytsky, 2000). Organizational cultures deemed unsatisfactory by employees because employee needs are ignored, result in dissatisfaction and turnover (Atkins & Turner, 2006), while organizations that provide an enjoyable, fun working environment and high morale, result in low turnover (Sadri & Lees, 2001).

Other factors that can affect employees' decision to stay with, or leave, an organization include work-family conflict and unhealthy work relationships (Ackerman & Bezuidenhout, 2007). Work-life balance is an important component of job satisfaction, which is why organizations have taken steps to incorporate alternate work arrangements to help employees balance their lives (Gainey & Clenney, 2006). Work-life balance is important as employees need to be freed from stressors and distractions in order to be effectively engaged in their jobs (Gryzwacz & Carlson, 2007). Development

of a work-life balance program is challenging for some organizations because each persons' needs vary overtime (Fulmano, 2005). However, this remains important, as employees' ability to achieve work-life balance directly affects the organization's employee retention rates (Baldiga, 2005).

Summary of the Methodology

This study's purpose was actualized through the use of a quantitative, non-experimental, correlational methodology. The quantitative approach was preferable as it permitted me to consider the data statistically, while preventing any bias I might have as an employee at the organization being studied, from affecting the results of this study.

This study was based on four research questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' perceptions of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction?
2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' perceptions of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job engagement?
3. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' length of time at a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction?
4. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' gender and their job satisfaction?

This study utilized a conceptual framework that consisted of two components. The first component of the conceptual framework was Frederick Herzberg's Two-Factor

Theory of Job Satisfaction, or Motivation-Hygiene Theory. The second component of the conceptual framework for this study was Hofstede's six dimensions of culture.

This study used data collected by Northern Protection in June of 2016, via an online survey conducted through the survey company, TemboStatus. The goal of the survey was to measure employee engagement and overall employee happiness, for the purpose of determining what areas of the organization's culture, if any, needed to be improved. Seventy-six employees completed the anonymous survey. This equates to 73% of the total Northern Protection employee workforce who completed the survey, and 27% who did not complete the survey. Access to the data gathered was requested for use in this study. The organization approved this request.

The following hypotheses were tested to answer the research questions:

H₁: There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' perception of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction.

H₀₁: There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' perception of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction.

H₂: There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' perceptions of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job engagement.

H₀₂: There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' perceptions of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job engagement.

H₃: There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' length of time at a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction.

H₀₃: There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' length of time at a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction.

H₄: There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' gender and their job satisfaction.

H₀₄: There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' gender and their job satisfaction.

Summary of the Major Findings

An examination of the data found that two of the hypotheses were supported, and two were not supported. The employee perceived organizational culture at Northern Protection was positively correlated with the job satisfaction of the organization's employees. There was a strong positive relationship between these variables, as noted by a correlation of .787, with a significant correlation at the 0.01 level. Similarly, it was confirmed that employee perceived organizational culture has a positive correlation on employee engagement. This correlation was noted at .740, with a significant correlation at the 0.01 level, which suggested a strong positive relationship exists between these variables.

While these relationships were correctly hypothesized, an employee's length of time with the organization was found to not have a positive correlation on their job satisfaction. An analysis of the data showed that there is not a statically significant correlation between these two variables, as the correlation was discovered to be .049, with a significance score of 0.673. It was also found that there is no correlation between

an employee's gender and job satisfaction. The correlation between these variables was -0.014, with a significance score of 0.903. There is therefore not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis of no correlation between gender and job satisfaction, so the null hypothesis is retained.

Although this study focused on only four research questions, the data revealed another significant correlation that was not actively being tested by the hypotheses. It was shown that a very strong correlation, of .931 and significant at the 0.01 level, existed between job satisfaction and employee engagement. This correlation was actually the strongest amongst all the variables examined in this study. The study also revealed that gender and length of time at the organization have no impact on any of the other variables.

Discussion

This conceptual framework for this study consisted of Frederick Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction, or Motivation-Hygiene Theory, and Dr. Geert Hofstede's six dimensions of culture. Herzberg theorized that intrinsic (motivation) factors were related to job satisfaction, while extrinsic (hygiene) factors were thought to be those associated with dissatisfaction. Motivation factors, or satisfiers – such as achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement – were thought to be the primary cause of satisfaction. Conversely, hygiene factors, or dissatisfiers – including company policy and administration, supervision, relationships with supervisors and peers, work conditions, salary, status, and security – were thought to be the primary cause of unhappiness. While hygiene factors do not motivate employees, the lack of or inadequacy of these factors leads to dissatisfaction.

Hofstede's six dimensions of culture include Power distance, Individualism versus collectivism, Masculinity versus femininity, Uncertainty avoidance, Long term versus short term orientation, and Indulgence versus Restraint.

The culture of a group is an abstract concept which cannot be observed, much like a person's personality (Schein, 2010). Similar to how we can observe the behavior that results from an individual's underlying personality and character, we can also observe the shared norms that guide and constrain a group. These shared norms are the group's culture. The purpose of this conceptual framework was not to determine what type, or types, of culture are best, as there are no good or bad cultures since all cultures have a purpose (Handy, 1985). This study's conceptual framework was designed to assist in identifying the shared norms, or components, of the culture found at Northern Protection, and how the components of this culture affect the overall happiness of the employees.

The questions asked in the survey, used to gather the data examined in this study, provide some insight into the norms and components of the culture found at Northern Protection:

1. I love my job
2. I am proud to work at my company
3. I do my job to the best of my ability
4. I am proud of the work I do
5. My work drives company success
6. I find my work energizing
7. I enjoy working with my co-workers
8. The leadership team is open and honest

9. Our leadership team is a strong group of competent professionals
10. The leadership team is approachable
11. My direct team lead is a competent leader
12. My direct team lead is caring and approachable
13. My direct team lead is open and honest
14. My direct team lead is encouraging
15. I regularly get useful feedback from my direct team lead
16. I have good team dynamics with my co-workers
17. My co-workers are fun and caring toward me
18. I can get my ideas heard by the right person
19. I am well informed by the organization
20. I have the potential to advance my career here
21. I get training that is helping me grow in my career
23. I recognize my colleagues for their good work
24. I am recognized for my good work

Components of Northern Protection's culture include employees loving what they do and having a sense that their work is important to company success. Other norms include openness between leadership and employees; leaders who are competent, caring, approachable, and encouraging; leaders providing useful feedback to employees; a fun environment where employees care about each other; everyone's ideas being heard; personal growth and career advancement; and recognition for good work.

Northern Protection's culture is comprised of a mix of both motivation and hygiene factors. Components such as the work itself, recognition for good work, and

career advancement are aspects of the culture that would result in job satisfaction. Components such as the overall company structure and policies, leadership style, relationships with leadership and peers would be the primary areas that could cause job dissatisfaction. Keeping employees happy depends on the organization's ability to maintain a balance between the elements that cause satisfaction and those that cause dissatisfaction. This is not always easy to achieve, but based on the results of this study, it would seem that in 2016, the organization was able to achieve this balance.

Hofstede's six dimensions of culture provides insight into how Northern Protection was able to maintain the balance between satisfiers and dissatisfiers. Northern protection maintains a low power distance. Employees are welcome to question the decisions of a manager. Northern Protection is a collectivist culture, as evidenced by the fact that it promotes a strong sense of community, with employees regularly referencing a sense of family. This sense of family results from the more feminine values fostered at Northern Protection, such as the friendlier atmosphere and caring and encouragement afforded by leadership. The organization also maintained a low level of uncertainty avoidance, focused on short term orientations, and allowed indulgence. Northern Protection's flat structure, easy access to the executive team, and openness of leadership, facilitates these dimensions of culture, but whether or not this can continue as the company grows is yet to be seen.

What is clear from the results of this study is that at Northern Protection, there is a strong, positive relationship between organizational culture and job satisfaction. This significant correlation is not surprising, as people-oriented, supportive cultures have been shown to have a positive relationship with job satisfaction (Stebbins, 2008). Likewise,

the strong positive relationship between organizational culture and employee engagement confirmed that organizational culture does affect employee engagement. While the study also confirmed that an employee's gender does not affect their experience at the company, what was surprising was that this study revealed that an employee's length of time at the organization does not affect their job satisfaction. This suggests that an employee's longevity with an organization should not lead to the assumption that they are satisfied or engaged with their job.

Another unexpected outcome of this study was the confirmation of the strong correlation between job satisfaction and employee engagement – a relationship this study did not intentionally intend to investigate, but one which has been noted in literature (Christian et al., 2011; Fairbanks, 2007; Li, 2016). What was especially surprising was that this relationship was the strongest amongst all the variables of this study.

While cultural types are not good or bad, the effectiveness of the organizational culture depends on the environment in which it exists (Handy, 1985; Schein 2010). The results of this study show that relationships exist between employee perceived organizational culture, job satisfaction, and employee engagement. This correlation exists because the norms and values of an organization will dictate how much an employee enjoys working there, and the sense of value they get from the work they do there. This in turn will affect their passion and enthusiasm for their work.

While this study focused on a single organization, these relationships should transcend cultural types. For this reason, care should be taken to ensure that the organizational culture, regardless of the specific elements of the culture, be appropriate for the environment and the employees that make up the organization. This is important

because job satisfaction affects employee engagement, which has been shown to have a statistical relationship with desired outcomes including productivity, profit, customer satisfaction, and employee retention (Little & Little, 2006), as well as work-life balance (Gryzwacz & Carlson, 2007). With the job satisfaction and engagement of employees having such a massive effect on the success of an organization, it is highly important that organizations focus on developing a culture that encourages employees' involvement and satisfaction with, and enthusiasm for, their work (Harter et al., 2002, p. 269), and facilitates the achievement of employees' job values, resulting in a pleasurable emotional state (Locke, 1969).

While the culture at Northern Protection was very unique to me, Northern Protection is not the first organization to develop this type of culture. Proving that such a culture can be effective, there are a number of very successful technology companies that have effectively nurtured similar cultures including Ultimate Software, Salesforce and Google, which are all hailed for their employee-focused culture. Ultimate Software employees can expect the company to pay for all of their medical and dental costs, in addition to unlimited time off (Great Place to Work, 2018). Salesforce employees also receive unlimited time off, after the first year of employment, as well as seven paid days, per year, to volunteer in their community (Great Place to Work, 2018). Google was voted as the best place to work on the Fortune 100 Best Companies to Work For list, 2011 through 2017, and a total of eight times in 11 years (Fortune, 2017). It was also named by Comparably as the tech company with the best culture in 2018 (Forbes Technology Council, 2018). Google's culture boasts many unique employee benefits and perks including haircuts, laundry service, free gourmet food (Fortune, 2017), employee

trips, a dog-friendly work environment (Patel, 2015), nap pods, and on-site physicians (Forbes Technology Council, 2018). One reason Google's organizational culture has been so popular is because of the focus on meeting the needs of its employees. For example, noticing that employees who were mothers were leaving the organization at a high rate, Google improved its parental leave policies, which resulted in a 50% reduction in working mothers leaving the organization (Fortune, 2017).

Google has a flat organizational culture, is strategic in hiring individuals that have the same values, nurtures collaboration, promotes innovation, and encourages employees to challenge bureaucracy (Rushdi & Kamal, 2014). Google treats their employees well, providing training, resources, and recognition (Rushdi & Kamal, 2014). While employee empowerment is the main strategy and essence of Google culture (Rushdi & Kamal, 2014), Google has, however, experienced some difficulties retaining their culture as they continue to grow and expand and so the organization continues to revisit and reassess its culture as it grows (Patel, 2015). Developing an organizational culture that ensures job satisfaction and engagement of employees is not a one-time endeavor. It requires constant attention to ensure that it remains effective in meeting the needs of both the organization and its employees.

The next sections of this discussion will specifically discuss the results of this study's research questions, and their implications.

Discussion and Implications of Major Findings

Research Question 1

The first research question was: Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' perceptions of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction?

The results of the study showed that there was a strong positive relationship between employee perceived organizational culture and job satisfaction, as noted by a correlation of .787, with a significant correlation at the 0.01 level. These results confirm the findings of a number of other researchers who reported that organizational culture affects job satisfaction (Odom et al., 1990; Sheridan, 1992; Stebbins, 2008; Wallach, 1983).

Discussion of Major Findings

The results of this study show that organizational culture has a direct impact on job satisfaction, and this relationship is supported by many other studies (Ahamed & Mahmood, 2015; Alexander, 2012; Hebb, 1949; Kline & Boyd, 1994; Morse, 1953; Odom et al., 1990; Sempane et al., 2002; Sheridan, 1992; Silverthorne, 2004; Stebbins, 2008; Wallach, 1983; Zammuto & Krakower, 1991). It is therefore important for organizations to consider this link when developing or reviewing their strategic plan (Alexander, 2012), and choose to invest adequate time and remain persistent in order to develop and maintain a favorable organizational culture. The strength and stability of a culture depend largely on the length of time the culture has existed (Schein, 2010). As new employees join the organization, they will bring new expectations and beliefs (Schein, 1990) and it will take time for them to internalize the organization's culture,

through observation and training (Ritchie, 2000). Organizations therefore need to be adaptable and must recognize that the development and maintenance of an organizational culture is never complete, but is an ongoing process.

The organizational culture should be one that truly reflects the values and beliefs of the organization and that will attract the types of employees the organization wishes to retain, as job satisfaction depends on the match between an individual's characteristics and the organization's culture (Chen et al., 2016; Silverthorne, 2004; Wallach, 1983). An appropriate organizational fit positively predicts job satisfaction and training can help improve this fit (Chen et al., 2016). The better the employee-organization fit, the higher the level of job satisfaction that will result (Silverthorne, 2004).

Organizations that do not maintain a favorable organizational culture will experience unsatisfied employees. Organizations should strive to keep their employees satisfied with their jobs, as employees who are happy in their jobs experience an overall level of happiness with their workplace (Robertson & Cooper, 2011). This leads to a general sense of positive psychological well-being (Robertson & Cooper, 2011), which results in lower levels of turnover, accidents, and absences (Freed, 2003).

Implications of Major Findings

The implication of these findings is that an organization's culture must be considered to be both a recruitment and a retention tool and should be carefully maintained for the health of the organization. Employees should be trained not only on job tasks, but also on the organizational culture (Ritchie, 2000; Schein, 1990) as such training has been proven to lead to a number of positive results, including job satisfaction (Alexander, 2012). Employee's job satisfaction has an impact on their overall

psychological well-being (Robertson & Cooper, 2011), and an employee's happiness with their job as well as their physical health, are linked to their intentions to leave the workplace (Kemery et al., 1987). Low levels of job satisfaction result in withdrawal, burn out and aggression (Ellickson, 2002), as well as high levels of turnover, accidents, and absences (Freed, 2003), which is disruptive to the organization and leads to decreased levels of productivity. This equates to high financial costs for the organization (Koh & Boo, 2001). These implications are therefore important not only for the wellbeing of employees, but for the continued success and profitability of organizations.

Research Question 2

The second research question was: Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' perceptions of the organizational culture of a Toronto-based technology company, and their job engagement?

The results of the study suggested a strong positive relationship between the variables. A correlation was noted at .740, with a significant correlation at the 0.01 level. This confirmed that employee perceived organizational culture has a strong positive correlation on employee engagement.

Discussion of Major Findings

These findings confirm Attridge's (2009) proposal that employee engagement can be enhanced by organizational culture, as well as Sarangi and Srivastava's (2012) statement that organizational culture significantly predicts engagement. As noted by Harper (2015), much research has been conducted on organizational culture and employee engagement separately, but very little research has been done on the

relationship between organizational culture and employee engagement, and most of them have not been empirical in nature. While there is limited research on the relationship between these variables, there is research that proves a relationship between job satisfaction and employee engagement (Christian et al., 2011; Fairbanks, 2007; Li, 2016), so by extension, it can be inferred that organizational culture and employee engagement are related since job satisfaction is directly related to organizational culture (Ahamed & Mahmood, 2015; Alexander, 2012; Hebb, 1949; Kline & Boyd, 1994; Morse, 1953; Odom et al., 1990; Sempane et al., 2002; Sheridan, 1992; Silverthorne, 2004; Stebbins, 2008; Wallach, 1983; Zammuto & Krakower, 1991).

This study adds to the limited body of research available on this relationship and supports the finding that a positive correlation does exist between organizational culture and employee engagement. Employees should be provided training on the organizational culture (Ritchie, 2000; Schein, 1990) and how they fit into it as this has been found to lead to job satisfaction, as well as employee engagement (Alexander, 2012). In addition, the organization should strive to develop and maintain a culture where employees are not constantly under high stress as employees need to be freed from stressors and distractions in order to be effectively engaged in their jobs (Gryzwacz & Carlson, 2007).

Implications of Major Findings

The implication of these results is that organizational culture does have a positive impact on employee engagement. By paying attention to the organization's culture and ensuring that it is a favorable one, organizations can ensure that their employees remain engaged, which is important because engaged employees are healthier, happier (Kanter,

1993), and more productive (Christian et al., 2011), and attain higher levels of customer satisfaction (Hunter et al., 2007).

Another reason that these findings are so important is because of the relationship between employee engagement and employee retention (Little & Little, 2006).

Organizations that do not maintain a favorable organizational culture will result in disengaged employees who will seek employment elsewhere, as an employee's commitment to an organization and its goals is based on their level of engagement (Little & Little, 2006). Engaged employees have lower levels of turn-over intentions (Christian et al., 2011) and are more likely to stay and aid the organization in meeting its goals (Porter et al., 1974). Employees who are not engaged are passive, "checked out," do not put much energy or passion into their work, and when actively disengaged may spread their disengaged attitude throughout the organization and purposefully undermine the accomplishments of other employees (Gallup Study, 2006; Harter et al., 2002; Li, 2016). Engaged employees, however, work with high levels of energy and enthusiasm, and feel a "profound connection" to their organization (Gallup Study, 2006; Harter et al., 2002; Li, 2016). Having to replace employees who leave the organization due to a lack of engagement will ultimately lead to additional expense to the organization to recruit and train new employees.

Research Question 3

The third research question was: Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' length of time at a Toronto-based technology company, and their job satisfaction?

The results of the study showed that there is not a statistically significant correlation between an employee's length of time with the organization and their job satisfaction, as the correlation was discovered to be .049, with a significance score of 0.673. The conclusion is therefore that length of time with the organizational does not have a positive correlation on job satisfaction.

Discussion of Major Findings

There is not a consensus in the research related to whether or not length of time at an organization affects the job satisfaction of employees. Some research concludes that length of time of service has a negative correlation with job satisfaction (Ma & MacMillan, 1999; Oshagbemi, 2003). Other research suggests that length of time at an organization increases the level of job satisfaction experienced by employees (Dike, 2011), due to the fact that the relationship between employees and their coworkers and supervisors increases over time (Dike, 2011). Conversely, there is also research that suggests that spending a greater length of time at an organization does not lead to employees having a greater level of job satisfaction (Sharma, 2009).

The results of this study support the conclusion that length of time at an organization does not increase job satisfaction. Based on the analysis of the data used in this study, employees who were employed by Northern Protection for a longer period of time did not show a higher level of job satisfaction, and those employed for a shorter period of time did not show a lower level of job satisfaction. While this result may seem counterintuitive, when considered in conjunction with other research conducted on the relationship between these variables it seems quite plausible. Employees' needs and desires change over time (Fulmano, 2005; Schroder, 2003), and as these change, so will

their perception of the organization's ability to meet those needs, which will result in a change in their job satisfaction. Likewise, changes in the organizational culture will affect the job satisfaction of employees (Hebb, 1949; Morse, 1953). Regardless of how long an employee has been with an organization, changes in the employee's needs or the organization's culture will affect the job satisfaction of the employee. In this context, this study's finding that length of time with the organizational does not have a positive correlation on job satisfaction, is explicable.

Implications of Major Findings

The implication of these findings is that organizations cannot relate length of time with the organization and job satisfaction. Organizations cannot take it for granted that because an employee has been with the organization for some time that they are necessarily happy or satisfied with their job. While there are some studies that suggest a positive relationship between length of time with the organization and job satisfaction – and even research that suggests that length of time at an organization impacts the job satisfaction of part-time employees, but not full-time employees (Kirk, 2003) – there are other studies (Dike 2011; Sharma, 2009), including this one, that have found that there is no relationship between these variables.

Despite the opposing conclusions of the various studies on this relationship, the ambiguity solidifies the implication that length of time of employment is not a reliable indicator of employee job satisfaction. Organizations need to take steps to ensure that all employees, regardless of length of time at the organization, are satisfied with their jobs, as when employees are unsatisfied there are higher numbers of accidents and absences (Freed, 2003), and higher turnover levels, as employees are likely to leave the

organization (Freed 2003; Kemery et al., 1987; Porter et al., 1974), which leads to lower productivity levels (Koh & Boo, 2001).

Research Question 4

The fourth research question was: Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' gender and their job satisfaction?

The results of the study showed that there is no correlation between an employee's gender and job satisfaction. The correlation between these variables was -0.014, with a significance score of 0.903, which confirmed that there is no significant correlation between gender and job satisfaction.

Discussion of Major Findings

The results of research on the impact of gender on the job satisfaction of employees have not been consistent. While some research suggests that gender is a predictor of job satisfaction (Bonte & Krabel, 2014; Khan et al., 2013; Lindorff, 2011; Oshagbemi, 2003; Sentuna, 2015), other research reports that there is no significant correlation between job satisfaction and gender (Berry, 2016; Saiti & Papadopoulos, 2015; Stebbins, 2008).

Some studies note that differences in job satisfaction levels will be caused by what a person values in the workplace, their goals and expectations (Berry, 2016), and that an employee's gender could influence both what they value (Olorunsola, 2010), and the way that the values of an organization affect the employee (Bellou, 2010). There is research that suggests that women are more satisfied when factors other than pay are considered, while men appear more satisfied when pay is considered (Berry, 2016). This

contradicts other studies which found that gender had very little influence on job satisfaction (Berry, 2016), which coincides with this study's findings that there is no significant correlation between gender and job satisfaction.

Implications of Major Findings

The implication of this finding is that neither males nor females experience a higher sense of job satisfaction. As gender does not impact job satisfaction, organizations do not need to produce gender specific programs focused on increasing job satisfaction. Organizations should focus their efforts on implementing an holistic program to ensure that all employees, regardless of their gender, are satisfied with their jobs because this will result in more productive employees (Christian et al., 2011), and positive business outcomes such as customer satisfaction and employee retention (Alexander, 2012; Hunter et al., 2007).

Gender does not predict job satisfaction, but it does relate to different experiences based on individual expectations, which can affect an employee's perception of their workplace (Berry, 2016). Recognizing that the physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization (Maslow, 1954) needs and expectations of employees will be different based on their gender and experience, organizations should seek to ensure that issues such as pay equality, sexual harassment, and gender equality are addressed, as some researchers report that women are less likely to feel satisfaction with things such as pay and resources in the workplace (McMurray et al., 2000) due to gender-based inequality. When work expectations and actual experiences do not align, job satisfaction is negatively impacted, and it is therefore important that organizations address the expectations of employees (Berry, 2016).

Recommendations for Practice

The results of this study show that relationships exist between employee perceived organizational culture, job satisfaction, and employee engagement. The following recommendations for organizations were based on the results of this study and the included literature review.

1. The retention of skilled employees is a problem faced by many organizations (Diala, 2010). Organizations should foster a culture that values employees, and focuses on maintaining their happiness. When employees experience a high level of job satisfaction and employee engagement, the organization enjoys many favorable outcomes, including high productivity and customer satisfaction. When employees are not satisfied with nor engaged in their work, the organization will experience a number of negative results, including high turnover. Investing in the happiness of employees will have a direct result on the success of the organization.
2. Organizations should actively hire people that fit the culture the organization wants to foster. The components that lead to one employee experiencing a high sense of job satisfaction may not have the same outcome for another employee. Matching a person's character traits to the appropriate organizational culture (Wallach, 1983) is therefore important. It is important for organizations to ensure that the employees they hire are a good fit for the culture of the organization - that is that they share the organization's values and beliefs - otherwise this will lead to low job satisfaction and engagement.

3. This study showed that length of time at an organization does not affect job satisfaction. Organizations should not take it for granted that long term employees are happy. Just because an employee stays at an organization for a long time does not mean they are satisfied or engaged. Care should be taken to ensure that the organizational culture actively encourages the job satisfaction and engagement of long term employees. The organizational culture should make it attractive for employees to stay with the organization for a long time. Organizations can do this by publicly recognizing long term employees and rewarding their commitment to the organization, and by modifying the culture to reflect and meet the changing needs of employees over time.

Recommendations for Future Research

The results of this study show that relationships exist between employee perceived organizational culture, job satisfaction, and employee engagement. The following recommendations based on the results of this study and the included literature review are for researchers who may be interested in conducting further research, based on this study.

1. This study was limited to a quantitative method. Use of a mixed method would gather additional valuable data, which could shed more light on specifically what aspects of organizational culture are most impactful to employees, and how these components, or the lack thereof, make them feel about their jobs.
2. This study was conducted at a single Toronto-based technology company. Repeating this study in other locations, business sectors, and varying sizes of

companies, would allow researchers to confirm the generalizability of these findings to other environments.

3. This study looked at a snapshot of data during a single time period. Repeating this study in the same environment in subsequent years would allow researchers to compare the results and determine whether or not the results remain the same as the organization grows and components of the culture change.
4. This study focused on specific variables – employee perceived organizational culture, job satisfaction, employee engagement, length of time, and gender. For added value to organizations, this study should be repeated using additional variables to show the relationship between organizational culture, job satisfaction, employee retention and favorable organizational outcomes – for example, employee retention, customer satisfaction, and revenue.
5. This study did not compare different types of cultures to see if their effects on job satisfaction and employee engagement was different. A study should be conducted to measure the levels of job satisfaction and employee engagement in different types of organizational cultures.

Conclusion

Much research has been done on organizational culture and employee engagement separately, but little attention has been given to the relationship between organizational culture and employee engagement (Harper, 2015). While not new concepts, there remains a need for additional research on the relationships among organizational culture, job satisfaction, and employee engagement, as they have not been studied carefully enough (Harper, 2015; Schein, 2010). This study contributes to the research conducted

on these variables as separate components, but its main value is in that it adds to the limited body of work on the relationship between these variables. The results of this study show that there is a strong positive, significant, relationship between organizational culture and the job satisfaction and engagement of employees. Organizations should therefore strategically plan to develop an organizational culture that will lead to high levels of job satisfaction and engagement among their employees.

APPENDIX A

COPY OF AUTHORIZATION LETTER

Toronto, Ontario, M5E 1W7
Canada

March 27, 2017

Institutional Review Board
Andrews University
4150 Administrative Drive, Room 322
Berrien Springs, MI 49104-0355

To the Institutional Review Board:

This letter certifies that Donn Whitehall has been granted authorization to use the data gathered during the 2016 Employee Engagement Survey, conducted by TemboStatus on behalf of [Northern Protection].

Donn has been granted full permission to use the data as needed for the purpose of his doctoral dissertation, tentatively titled “A Quantitative Study of the Relationship Between the Organizational Culture of a Toronto-based Technology Company, and the Job Satisfaction and Engagement of its Employees.”

Sincerely,

Michelle Carter
Director of HR

APPENDIX B

ORIGINAL SURVEY QUESTIONS

1. I love my job (Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree, Strongly Disagree)
2. I am proud to work at my company (SA, A, D, SD)
3. I do my job to the best of my ability (SA, A, D, SD)
4. I am proud of the work I do (SA, A, D, SD)
5. My work drives company success (SA, A, D, SD)
6. I find my work energizing (SA, A, D, SD)
7. I enjoy working with my co-workers (SA, A, D, SD)
8. The leadership team is open and honest (SA, A, D, SD)
9. Our leadership team is a strong group of competent professionals (SA, A, D, SD)
10. The leadership team is approachable (SA, A, D, SD)
11. My direct team lead is a competent leader (SA, A, D, SD)
12. My direct team lead is caring and approachable (SA, A, D, SD)
13. My direct team lead is open and honest (SA, A, D, SD)
14. My direct team lead is encouraging (SA, A, D, SD)
15. I regularly get useful feedback from my direct team lead (SA, A, D, SD)
16. I have good team dynamics with my co-workers (SA, A, D, SD)
17. My co-workers are fun and caring toward me (SA, A, D, SD)
18. I can get my ideas heard by the right person (SA, A, D, SD)
19. I am well informed by the organization (SA, A, D, SD)
20. I have the potential to advance my career here (SA, A, D, SD)
21. I get training that is helping me grow in my career (SA, A, D, SD)
22. I have the necessary tools and resources to get work done (SA, A, D, SD)
23. I recognize my colleagues for their good work (SA, A, D, SD)
24. I am recognized for my good work (SA, A, D, SD)
25. Gender (M/F)
26. Length of Service (Less than 12 months, 12 – 18 months, 18 – 24 months, 24 – 36 months, More than 3 years)
27. Business/Support Unit (various units listed)

APPENDIX C

SURVEY QUESTIONS USED IN STUDY

1. I love my job (Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree, Strongly Disagree)
2. I am proud to work at my company (SA, A, D, SD)
3. I do my job to the best of my ability (SA, A, D, SD)
4. I am proud of the work I do (SA, A, D, SD)
5. My work drives company success (SA, A, D, SD)
6. I find my work energizing (SA, A, D, SD)
7. I enjoy working with my co-workers (SA, A, D, SD)
8. The leadership team is open and honest (SA, A, D, SD)
9. Our leadership team is a strong group of competent professionals (SA, A, D, SD)
10. The leadership team is approachable (SA, A, D, SD)
11. My direct team lead is a competent leader (SA, A, D, SD)
12. My direct team lead is caring and approachable (SA, A, D, SD)
13. My direct team lead is open and honest (SA, A, D, SD)
14. My direct team lead is encouraging (SA, A, D, SD)
15. I regularly get useful feedback from my direct team lead (SA, A, D, SD)
16. I have good team dynamics with my co-workers (SA, A, D, SD)
17. My co-workers are fun and caring toward me (SA, A, D, SD)
18. I can get my ideas heard by the right person (SA, A, D, SD)
19. I am well informed by the organization (SA, A, D, SD)
20. I have the potential to advance my career here (SA, A, D, SD)
21. I get training that is helping me grow in my career (SA, A, D, SD)
- ~~22. I have the necessary tools and resources to get work done (SA, A, D, SD)~~
23. I recognize my colleagues for their good work (SA, A, D, SD)
24. I am recognized for my good work (SA, A, D, SD)
25. Gender (M/F)
26. Length of Service (Less than 12 months, 12 – 18 months, 18 – 24 months, 24 – 36 months, More than 3 years)
- ~~27. Business/Support Unit (various units listed)~~

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